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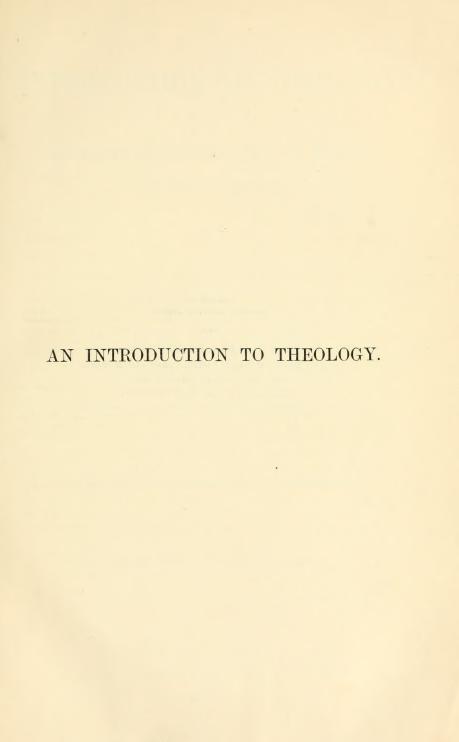
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# INTRODUCTION TO THEOLOGY:

ITS PRINCIPLES, ITS BRANCHES, ITS RESULTS,
AND ITS LITERATURE.

BY

### ALFRED CAVE, B.A., D.D.,

AUTHOR OF

"THE SCRIPTURAL DOCTRINE OF SACRIFICE AND ATONEMENT,"
"THE INSPIRATION OF THE OLD TESTAMENT INDUCTIVELY CONSIDERED,"
ETC. ETC.

AND

PRINCIPAL, AND PROFESSOR OF THEOLOGY, OF HACKNEY COLLEGE.

"Il faut avoir beaucoup étudié pour savoir peu."-Montesquieu.

Second Edition, Largely Rewritten.

EDINBURGH:

T. & T. CLARK, 38 GEORGE STREET. 1896. "What is the evidence in favour of any fundamental truth in science? It is no less than the whole science itself. What is the evidence for the rotation of the earth on its axis, or the revolution of the earth about the sun, instead of the sun about the earth? It is little less than the whole science of astronomy. All the observations ever made throughout the whole history of this science, and all the reasonings by which these observations were bound together into one consistent whole, all point to this one conclusion. The evidence derived from any single fact is small, but the effect of the whole is overwhelming. . . .

"We talk much of the right of free inquiry. We often say, 'Every man has a right to his own opinion.' But, in a question of exact science, what becomes of the right to one's own opinion?... Opinion is subjective—determined by temperament, education, and prejudice; truth is objective reality.... Opinion is individual property,—truth, like all great divine blessings, is the

heritage of all."-LE CONTE, Religion and Science, pp. 216, 217.

#### PREFACE.

TJPON its first appearance, in 1886, a unanimous chorus of approval greeted this manual because of its lists of books. In this respect—as a select bibliography of theology -the author has done his best to improve the present The bibliographical lists have been carefully revised to date; obsolete books have been weeded out; new books have been inserted. All possible to the author has been done to make these lists at once representative of the best work, and fair to diverse views. Not that the author has satisfied himself. Perfection would demand an extent of reading, a soundness of judgment, a length of experience, a spirituality of temper, a sureness of insight, to which the author can lay no claim. But he has not shrunk from labour, and he has striven after catholicity. The several lists of books would have occupied double the number of pages in this edition (as compared with the former), but for a more compact, and it is believed not less clear and beautiful, method of printing.

Perhaps, too, it should be distinctly stated that every book mentioned here has been carefully examined, and may, with a few exceptions, be found in the libraries beneath the roof of Hackney College.

Still, this work claims to be more than an introduction to theological literature. It has scientific pretensions. It claims to be a treatment of its subject from the standpoint of the essential nature of religion. According to its positions, theology is the science of religion; and religion in its elementary form, however composite it may subsequently become, is that unique fact,—human perception of a spiritual world revealed.

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In short, this book is a contribution to a new theology—a theology towards which, in the view of the author, all recent philosophy and theology have been pointing the way. This theology is the scientific treatment of a single and unique class of facts—the facts of religion (which are also the facts of revelation). Compare pp. 50-55 and 517-520.

This new theology—of which the materials are old, and only the organism is new-has, be it observed, a wider range than Christian theology (which is the science of the Christian religion), for it acknowledges that there have been religions prior to and alongside of Christianity, which show knowledge of and from a spiritual world. Again, whilst emphasising the importance to theology of revelation, this new theology finds revelation outside the Bible and the Christian Churches. Further, whilst accentuating as strongly as do the German schools from Schleiermacher to the present the indispensableness of faith to theology, this new theology finds faith outside of Christianity. And yet further, whilst laying as much stress as do Ritschl and his school upon the nature of religion, this new theology, on the one hand, finds objective cause for religion in a spiritual universe which reveals itself (of which Ritschl declares himself wholly ignorant), and, on the other hand, finds faith to be a characteristic of man as man (as well as of man as Christian). Happily, the tide of interest in theological questions is again flowing fast, and the various points herein raised may be thought not unworthy of attention.

Being, however, an INTRODUCTION to Theology, it is only a contribution which is made towards a complete exposition. All that this book pretends to do is to show that the various branches of theology are branches of one tree (some almost dead and sterile, and others vigorously alive and fruitful), which, having its root in the nature of man, also breathes its nutriment from the heaven of heavens.

And let another remark be made. The treatment of the whole subject is manifestly unequal, so large a part of the whole being devoted to the study of Biblical Theology. At the moment this inequality is unavoidable: so much more is known of the Bible than of any other branch of theology. Some day every ethnic religion may possibly be treated under

PREFACE. vii

similar heads to those found under Biblical Theology, but as yet such treatment is not possible. The fuller treatment of Biblical Theology has been decided upon, for two reasons: first, because of the relative maturity of the specific branches of Biblical study; and, second, because the present state of these several branches forms at once a groundwork of sure religious knowledge and an ideal of what other branches of theology may become. Respecting the sections where Books Recommended are given, let the reader kindly observe the following points: -The needs of the serious student have been consulted. The books are therefore arranged under two headings, Introductory and Advanced. By "Introductory" is meant not necessarily elementary, and certainly not popular, but those books which are best if only one or two be studied. By "Advanced" is meant those books which unitedly give the completest view of their subject as far as known. Of course these latter lists, invariably arranged in chronological order, require, for highest instructiveness, to be read in the light of the several epoch-making books which have appeared during the history of the study of any subject (usually named in the relative historical sections).

Further, practical experience in teaching and the requests of many correspondents have suggested a new feature of this edition. Much attention has been given to books in series. Such books are notoriously unequal. But it is often an advantage to have the titles of the books in any series in a compact form; and no guide to modern theological literature would be complete without mention of such series. Books in series have an importance all their own.

The Index of Authors, Translators, etc., even now all too faulty, has given much trouble, especially in endeavouring to give the Christian names or full initials of writers.

Yet further, in the lists of books, if no place of publication is named, London is mostly understood; and where London is not meant, the name of the publisher appended makes all clear. If no size is stated, the volume is some form of octavo. As to size generally, the roughest classification is adopted, rather as a practical than a technical guide. Thus, by folio is meant over twelve inches in length; by quarto, over ten

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and a half inches; by octavo, over seven and a half inches; less than seven and a half inches is called duodecimo. Moreover, in a few cases, where the sizes vary much from standard, they are called small or large, as "large quarto" or "small folio."

Yet again, the characterizations of books are purely such; they are not to be regarded as adequate critical judgments. That a book is named at all is a testimony to its importance; that it is named with a characterization implies that, for the purposes of this Introduction, the title is insufficiently explicit. Where there is no characterization, that is to say a book is to be regarded as sufficiently described either by its title, or by the heading under which it appears, or by both combined. It will be noted as a peculiarity of this book, that, as is so rarely done, titles are mostly given in full, being so often, when fully stated, the best guide to contents. When a recent book has been published in London, and in a few other cases, the name of the publisher, usually in abbreviated form, is given.

Hard work and close thought are incorporated in these pages, but the ground to be covered is so wide, that occasional inadequacy of treatment is inseparable from the plan. However, truth is too dear to the author for him to shrink from any criticism, and he will be grateful for any hints which will help him to improve or complete his work. Especially will authors, whose works may have been overlooked, receive his hearty thanks for any communications.

ALFRED CAVE.

Hackney College, Hampstead, London, N. W.

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### PROLEGOMENA.

§ 1.

ON THE VALUE OF THEOLOGICAL STUDY, ESPECIALLY TO THE PASTOR.

IN that rich and harmonious fresco, sometimes misnamed La Disputa, by which, together with the other mural decorations of the same gallery, Raphael has immortalised the Stanza della Signatura in the Vatican, the great master of the sixteenth century, the last and brightest link in the glorious chain of the Italian artists of first rank of that age, has put on record, in a manner which he who runs may read, his conception of the exalted character and the magnetic spell of Theology. A beautiful woman, austere and chaste, with laurel intertwined in her hair, and with the Gospels in her hand, points to the picture below, whilst two cherubs by her side hold up tablets, together containing the words, "Divinarum Rerum Notitia"—"The Knowledge of Divine Things." It is evident at a glance that the painting deals with earth and heaven as one whole. A cloud divides the canvas into two halves. In the upper half the heavenly world is depicted. According to the symbolism customary at the time, the Trinity is drawn,—the Father above in the midst of seraphim and cherubim and innumerable angels, - the Saviour a little beneath, who is Himself the centre of the risen saints, His mother being to His left, and John the Baptist to His right, whilst flanking them on either side the leading patriarchs, prophets, apostles, and martyrs appear, Peter and Adam, John and David, Stephen and Paul, Abraham and James, Moses and St. Lawrence and St. George, - and a little lower still the Holy Spirit descending as a dove. Beneath the dividing cloud, which is suggestively broken through by the descending Spirit and by some cherubs bearing the Holy Scriptures, the earthly assembly of believers is portrayed. Arranged right and left of an altar, where the eucharist is displayed and upon which the Holy Spirit is falling, a great company is seen of many creeds if but one faith. There we may distinguish Jerome, the diligent student of Scripture; Ambrose, the indefatigable pastor; Augustine, the converted philosopher; Bernard, the last of the Fathers; Gregory, the exegete; Aquinas, the angelical doctor; Bonaventura, the seraphic doctor; Peter Lombard, the master of sentences, and Scotus Erigena, the master of arguments; nay, side by side with these acknowledged Christian leaders Raphael has not hesitated to put as fellow-workers, if in less prominent positions, the sad poet and the brave heretic and the saintly painter who have ennobled Florence,—Dante, Savonarola, and Fra Angelico.

Such is Raphael's representation of theology, the queen of the sciences, as was so often said in his day. Theology, in his view, dealt with God, in the mystery of His being and the mercy of His doing; it treated of man in the majesty of his nature and the misery of his fall; it unfolded the mighty plan of redemption by the Holy Spirit and His instruments, revealed Scriptures and inspired men; it imparted knowledge, the source of which was the Triune God, the end of which was everlasting salvation, the promulgators of which were gifted men, divine knowledge which, conceived from all eternity, would spring and grow and fructify in time, enduring for ever.

Alas! our age is not like Raphael's, and many doubt both the data and the inferences of theology. What then? Theology is not the only science which has passed through seasons of neglect, to regain attention by its intrinsic merit and the enthusiasm of its devotees. Whether heard or unheeded, the true theologian will prosecute his studies with loving ardour, finding his reward, partly in the labour itself, which is so inspiring, and partly in the enjoyment of truths, which lose none of their flavour or nutriment by being unrecognised by

the mass. Is not the theologian sure that it is a science he is studying, and is he not also certain that his science is of the sublimest practical value? Nor is the theologian doubtful as to the future of his science. Christian classics, like heathen. may be buried for awhile, but they will bring a Renaissance again and again when they are unearthed. And to-day the theologian may be peculiarly hopeful. The theological renaissance of the nineteenth century has been in progress for some good while. Many are beginning to feel, as said Justus Jonas in his great oration,1 "However much we stray in the tempestuous seas of this life, and are often even wrecked. whilst one is distressed by anxiety about food and another by the thirst of glory, rest is nevertheless to be found in this port (of theology), and unless theology becomes the beginning, the middle, and the end of human beings, men cease to be men, and their life is that of the brutes that perish; there is no worthier occupation for man, there is none more liberal, there is no knowledge more excellent than the true knowledge of God and religion."

Now, this book being intended to initiate into the theory and practice of divine things, let a few words be said at the outset upon the advantage, especially to the professional teacher of divinity, of an intimate acquaintance with theology, divinity in scientific form. That a little knowledge of theology, as of law, medicine, art, or physical science, would be useful in accomplishing the ends of a liberal education, it would be easy to show at length; but, like the other branches of knowledge just indicated, theology is the peculiar pursuit of a professional class; it is therefore upon the value of a specific training in theology as a preparation for the office of a public religious teacher, that emphasis is at present laid. The following remarks are largely applicable to all who are interested in the acquisition or communication of divine truth; nevertheless it is the future pastor who is mainly in view, and whose desire for the highest efficiency in his sacred calling is assumed to be so intense that he frets at inappropriate methods of preparation for the work of his life.

There are two great ends to be accomplished by any suitable

<sup>1</sup> Corpus Reformatorum, vol. xi. column 44.

preparation for the Christian ministry, namely, to discipline and to furnish the mind of the future pastor. The task of mental culture as such is more especially undertaken in the general literary education which rightly precedes the professional, and where-to put the gist of the matter in a sentence—the aim is to cultivate the faculties of the man as distinct from the minister. All are agreed, that in every professional pursuit it is wise to train the several natural aptitudes by the methods of what is commonly called a liberal education, prior to the exercise of those aptitudes in the chosen domain of lifelong labour. Only after the student of medicine has developed his powers of observation, reasoning, and imagination, of self-control, caution, prudence, tact, wisdom, and sympathy, in the intellectual pursuits of the schools and the university, is he admitted to the hospital bedside or pathological lecture-room. Similarly, it is only after the theological student has gained some general facility of mind in the study of language, science, and philosophy that he can wisely commence the subjects proper to his special career. When introspective skill has been gained by the aid of philosophy, when mathematics has imparted its unrivalled insight into the processes of deductive reasoning, when the physical sciences have revealed the secrets and splendid capabilities of the inductive method, when heart and mind and will have been captivated and moulded by the charms of literature (almost insensibly imparting an air of culture whilst thrilling with its own strange delight), when, further, all the branches of common knowledge have together drilled the plastic mind to application, perseverance, and thoroughness, making refinement delicate, argument cogent, observation keen and rapid, imagination quick and ordered, inquiry pleasant and habitual, then, and then alone, can the cultured man proceed with advantage to become the erudite specialist. Then, having formed his mind in the "letters" which are "more human," he may inform it by the professional knowledge which is "more divine." Certainly a liberal education informs as well as forms, and, conversely, a theological education forms as well as informs. The study of Latin, for example, opens the way to much useful knowledge, in addition to invigorating the mind by grappling with philological difficulties, and, in like manner, the study of doctrinal theology augments accuracy as well as spirituality. Notwithstanding, speaking broadly, the aim of a literary course of study is to form rather than inform, and, on the other hand, the aim of a theological course is rather to inform than to form. In illustration of the general principle, be it noted how every definition, proposition, or theorem of Euclid may be forgotten in after life, whilst, notwithstanding, the fulfilment of the main purpose of mathematical study may be visible in a finer reasoning fibre and a firmer deductive grasp. On the contrary, if the interpretations of the Bible supplied by exegesis pass from the memory, or the doctrines inculcated by dogmatics, both sciences have failed in their great end.

In the FIRST place, then, the disciplinary and especially the didactic importance for the future pastor and teacher of a scientific acquaintance with theology is incalculable. Indeed, the preacher who has not spent days and years in theological investigation is, to recur to the previous parallels, as great an anomaly as the physician who has not studied medicine, or the lawyer who is ignorant of law. If the fact that a few self-taught herbalists or medical amateurs approve themselves to be skilled in the treatment of disease is a legitimate argument for dispensing with medical education, then it is also legitimate to infer that, because a few preachers who have had no specific theological culture are kings amongst their fellows, therefore a theological education is unnecessary, and possibly pernicious, for the intending occupant of a pulpit. The lay preacher, the Sunday-school teacher, the Bible-reader, the evangelist, would all be the better for some knowledge of theology: for the Christian minister such knowledge is indispensable, and will have to be acquired laboriously and unmethodically when all the energies are requisite for its practical enforcement, if its principles, methods, and prominent results are not studied as a branch of ministerial education. In its very nature Christianity is friendly to learning, and has naturally originated a learning of its own. It saves men by teaching them truths. It makes knowledge preliminary to salvation and holiness. Its ministry is a teaching ministry. It places its sacred books, written in foreign tongues, pervaded by an alien atmosphere,

themselves the choicest specimens of vivid history, lofty poetry, and profound philosophy, in the forefront of its means of grace. It fosters inquiry and awakens a personal spiritual judgment. Must it not demand, therefore, a studious, cultured, reflecting ministry, whose education has been especially thorough in its own specific teaching and methods? It is amongst the theologically uneducated or half-educated that heresies spring like weeds in a fallow. Undoubtedly "motherwit, shrewd sense, a personal knowledge of Christ, close intimacy with the English Bible," have made many a useful pastor, but not the most useful. Practically considered, ignorance of the rich stores of theological teaching is not preferable to knowledge. Given the same godly determination and insight, and the theologically trained minister puts more talents out to interest in his Master's service than the untrained. As has been well said, "The cry should be, not 'less intellect, less study, less culture,' but simply 'more heart, more prayer, more godliness, more subjection of culture to the salvation of those who have little or none of it." And another American writer very pertinently continues: "If ever the service of the ministry was a routine, it is no longer such. There is no research of scholarship, no philological skill, no power of historical investigation, no mastery in philosophy, no largeness of imagination, no grace of life and character, no practical selfdenial, no gift of eloquence to man by the written or spoken word, no energy of character, no practical sagacity, no polemical acuteness, no wisdom of counsel, . . . which may not find the fullest employment and which are not needed by the Christian Church. It wants its men of fire, its men of piety, its men of large discourse, its labourers in our streets and lanes, its men of calm philosophy, its heroes and saints: especially does it want its trained bands to meet both Pope and pagan." 2 A pastor is no longer "the one educated man in a parish"; all the more necessary is it that he be the one theologically erudite man, strong in Scripture and sure in doctrine. The weight and source of pastoral authority has shifted from the priest to the man. A critical spirit has arisen from the wide

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Austin Phelps, Theory of Preaching, 1882, p. 203.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> H. B. Smith, Introduction to Theology, New York, 1883, pp. 23, 24.

diffusion of the facts and methods of natural science, which cannot tolerate in the pulpit the hesitance or the dogmatism of the theological tyro. "It is not learning, but want of learning, which leads to error in religion." The preacher must compete in matter as well as form with the popularised theology of the press and the religious newspaper. All relations between the pastor and his flock tend to become purely personal, and nothing so commands respect as a well-deserved reputation for adding to the art of preaching a scientific knowledge of the subjects with which preaching deals. Qui bene distinguit, bene docct. Further, if one secret of successful preaching is adaptation, which surely increases with knowledge of the subjects to be treated, none can doubt that another secret is the power of persuasion, of belief pressed home, and this presupposes intelligent conviction in all preaching above the evangelistic level. The preacher is, in fact, a populariser of much special knowledge. For instance, he must be an expert in the interpretation of Scripture. To open the Bible, to proclaim the truths of revelation, to tell the Gospel by the light of what he has personally felt and tasted and handled of the word of life, if this is the life-work of the overseer of a church, how can it be fittingly carried out without theological acquisition? He who interprets the Old Testament or the New without exact study must obey some laws of commentating, which will be unconsciously obeyed at best, and may be grossly erroneous. Grip of Christian doctrine is equally called for in the preacher. Preaching of any pretension to variety or range can scarcely be consistent without a system of some kind, which, if not carefully learnt, must be blunderingly framed for oneself, or blindly, at least prematurely, accepted from others. The man who constitutes himself an authority upon details of doctrine, without careful and prolonged meditation of the thoughts of others, is neither likely to honour God nor benefit man. Shallowness and extravagance usually go hand in hand! "If," says Mr. Mahaffy, "piety without ability, or piety without firmness of character, is very often an unsafe guide in human affairs, so piety without learning is seldom of

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Marsh, Lectures on Divinity, 1809, pp. 12, 15, 16.

much effect in the pulpit. I do not mean that general learning, without which all preachers become thin and jejune, and weary their hearers with constant repetitions and platitudes; this is indeed important, and requires considerable leisure and ability for its acquisition, but we must lay even more stress on that special theological training, without which no man, in any religion, or reasonable system of theology, can properly teach and explain to his congregation the dogmas they should believe, and the duties they should perform."1 Nor were the unlearned fishermen who first propagated Christianity, so often appealed to as counter-arguments, so illiterate as is imagined by those who seem to regard theological ignorance as indispensable to pulpit success. What the apostles learnt almost without effort, we have to acquire by labour the most accurate and sustained. Peter, James, and John breathed a Hebrew atmosphere, talked Hellenistic Greek, had studied the great religious writers of their nation from their childhood, had learned the doctrines of their faith from the greatest Teacher Himself, so patient in imparting, so wise in instilling germ thoughts at right times, at once so prudently reticent and so frankly communicative. Certainly aptitude is necessary to the religious as to the literary or scientific teacher, but to aptitude a long special culture should be added; for truism as it is that the scientific study of theology cannot make an unfit man a preacher, it can make a preacher fit. Schleiermacher, the greatest theologian and almost the greatest preacher of his day, was wont to say to his class: "It is the union of the theologian and the pastor which makes a father of the Church." "I believe the remark," said Mr. Spurgeon, that prince of preachers, to his students, "is too well grounded, that if you attend a lecturer on astronomy or geology, during a short course you will obtain a tolerably clear view of his system; but if you listen, not for twelve months, but for twelve years, to the common run of preachers, you will not arrive at anything like an idea of their system of theology. . . . Brethren, if you are not theologians, you are in your pastorates just nothing at all. . . . Verbiage is too often the fig-leaf which does duty as a covering for theological

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Decay of Preaching, 1882, pp. 65, 66.

ignorance. Sounding periods are offered instead of sound doctrine, and rhetorical flourishes in the place of robust thought. Such things ought not to be. . . . Unless we are instructive preachers, and really feed the people, we may be great quoters of elegant poetry, and mighty retailers of second-hand windbags, but we shall be like Nero of old, fiddling while Rome was burning, and sending vessels to Alexandria to fetch sand for the arena, while the populace starved for want of corn." <sup>1</sup>

SECONDLY, in the spiritual results of a study of theology remuneration will also be found for the severest theological toil. "Clear and distinct thought in matters of religion is a very great help to devotion." 2 It is matter of fact that every great advance in the religious life, whether of individuals or communities, has had its beginning in a clearer apprehension of theological truth. Practical advance is preceded by intellectual advance. This is so in our personal experience, if we examine ourselves closely. A fuller understanding of the atonement, or prayer, or the omnipresence of the Deity, or the living Christ, or any detail or principle of the Bible, quickens our religious sensibilities and prompts to renewed energy. It is the same with the men of light and leading who make history. An observant writer has even gone so far as to say that "it is not the example of a holy life, but the assertion of a separate creed, which has reformed the world again and again," that "it is dogma which rules the great changes in the religious thought of the world," that "all great social and political revolutions have been preceded by intellectual movements "-Voltaire and Rousseau, and the Encyclopédistes, for example, "awakening the French mind to the ideas of the revolution." The assertion is an exaggeration of a great truth. Let an Athanasius settle by protracted prayer, thought, and inquiry the eminently subtle distinction as to whether the person of Christ is όμοούσιον or όμοιούσιον with the Father, and he will afterwards stand against the world of emperors, prelates magistrates, and mobs, for the truth which has had so rich a

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Lectures to my Students, first series, 1875, p. 74.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> J. Pilkington Norris, Rudiments of Theology, 1876, p. 70. <sup>3</sup> Mahaffy, Decay of Preaching, pp. 77 and 118.

practical effect upon his own spirit. What was it but a deeper theological conviction, matured by biblical study, concerning the directness of the soul's intercourse with Christ, which inspired Luther? What but their theology made Wiclif and Hus, Savonarola and Knox, Cranmer and Ridley, Whitfield and Wesley? Who shall estimate the value in our English life of the theological writings of Hooker, and Ussher, and Leighton, and Owen, and Baxter, and Howe? A similar testimony is borne by the annals of great movements of religious thought. Clearer intellectual apprehension has always produced a more blissful experience, and a more consistent and enriched practice; or, to put the same thing in another way, a more vital realisation of Christian truth has always been antedated by its more accurate intellectual appre-The whole course of the Church is a comment upon this statement. Christian faith may be largely the same the wide world over, and Christian morality may always have some identical features, but the common unanimity of faith and practice does not and cannot preclude the necessity of theological inquiry. The same paradox is seen in the natural sciences without seeming paradoxical. The common facts of nature are the same to all men, but this similarity of everyday experience does not for a moment supersede the necessity for ordered, careful, and prolonged investigation. The great desideratum for robust faith is just that formulated doctrine which results from the scientific study of theology. Concatenated knowledge has its place in the life of the believer as well as personal experience, however delightful and invigorating; for, as a savage may become ecstatic over a chemical experiment he cannot repeat, or a man may have a keen pleasure in music without knowing his notes but is unable to impart that pleasure to others, so the religion of the untheological Christian is invertebrate, and largely consists in a personal delight which is incommunicable. The church which mistakes indefiniteness for breadth is not apt at evangelising; the church which confounds personal sentiment with catholic doctrine cannot be successful in edification. Moreover, when the apostle Peter bids us "be ready always to give an answer to every man that asketh a reason of the hope which is in" us, let it be remembered that such readiness is born of intellect rather than intuition, of theology rather than experience. Theology, in fact, occupies the place in spiritual things science does in natural: it educates, it matures, it equips; it is the discipline of the teacher; it is the mental furniture of the leader and originator of religious thought; it summarises the past to be recounted, it suggests the future to be produced: it forms in the preacher that special character which is invaluable in his craft, for as there is a legal and a medical and a commercial character, the attainment of which is the great aim of specific training, so there is a theological character, rendering practice easy and judgment rapid and wise. Indeed, seeing that theology is simply thought about religion reduced to system, to disregard theology is either the mark of childishness or senility—of spiritual faculties too immature or too decadent to think orderly. To borrow another illustration from the natural world: any man, woman, or child can see the sun and feel its warmth; each receives therefrom much the same impression; but the delineation of the physical features of the monarch of the ether, the theoretical interpretation of its heat and light and structure, matters of supreme practical as well as scientific import, are the slow acquisition of the labours of centuries, and always leave room for earnest thought and continued investigation. It is the same with theology. Some choice fruits of the merciful revelations from on high all who are willing may share; there is a family likeness among all the sons of God; but neither the clearness of parts of Scripture nor the catholicity of Christian experience precludes further inquiry; the precise, orderly, affiliated expression and explanation of the facts presented by Scripture and experience (which is theology), a pursuit of almost equal importance to the theoretical and practical mind, demands and repays ceaseless and unwearying labour. "That theological learning is necessary to make a good divine," said Bishop Marsh, "will appear still more evident when we consider what it is which constitutes the chief difference between the unlearned and the learned in theology. It is not the ability to read the New Testament in Greek which makes a man a learned divine, though it is one of the ingredients without which he cannot become so; the main difference consists in this, that while the unlearned in divinity obtain only a knowledge of what the truths of Christianity are, the learned in divinity know also the grounds on which they rest, and that this knowledge ought to be obtained by every man who assumes the sacred office of a Christian teacher, nothing but the blindest enthusiasm can deny." 1 "In point of fact," it has been said by another erudite writer, "the great end of Christian theology is the employment of practical power to the highest ends, and on the widest scale; it is the transmutation of the Christian faith into the Christian life—first in the individual, intermediately in the Church, ultimately through the Church in society at large; this transmutation when accomplished is the realisation of the kingdom of God. The faith without the life is barren; the life without the faith is shrivelled; the faith in the life is the great end."2

And there is yet a THIRD reason why the student for the ministry should aim at a familiar acquaintance with theological science. He must be more or less of a theologian whether he will or not. Fichte, in one of his discussions upon the utility of philosophical study, is content to base the utility of speculation upon its necessity, every thinking man being impelled to philosophise whether he will or not. Fichte means that to run some roads and introduce some plan into the jungle of ideas is an irrevocable consequence of the possession of reason. The sentiment is just. The thoughtful man must either accept a philosophy already framed, or frame one for himself. With equal truth it might be said that every thoughtful Christian must theologise; and the true pastor is a meditative Christian who, having consecrated his life to form and guide other Christians, may be fairly credited with thinking. It is true that some Christian teachers say that they will take the express statements of Scripture for their theology. They forget that this express teaching has itself to be gathered and harmonised by much theological study. The point has been

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Marsh, Lectures on Criticism and Interpretation of the Bible, new edition, 1828, p. 11.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> H. B. Smith, Introduction to Theology, p. 14.

well put by John Henry Newman. "When we turn," he says, "to the consideration of particular doctrines on which Scripture lays the greatest stress, we shall see that it is absolutely impossible for them to remain in the mere letter of Scripture, if they are to be more than mere words, or convey a definite idea to the recipient. When it is declared that 'the Word became flesh,' three wide questions open upon us on the very announcement. What is meant by 'the Word,' what by 'flesh,' and what by 'became'? The answers to these involve a process of investigation. Moreover, when they have been made, they will suggest a series of secondary questions; and thus at length a multitude of propositions is the result, which gather round the inspired sentence of which they come, giving it externally the form of a doctrine, and creating or deepening the idea of it in the mind." 1 Nor should the golden words of Bishop Butler be forgotten, where he so wisely says: "And as it is owned the whole scheme of Scripture is not yet understood, so, if it ever comes to be understood, it must be in the same way as natural knowledge is come at, by the continuance and progress of learning and of liberty, and by particular persons attending to, comparing, and pursuing intimations scattered up and down it, which are overlooked and disregarded by the generality of the world. Nor is it at all incredible that a book which has been so long in the possession of mankind, should contain many things as yet undiscovered. For all the same phenomena and the same faculties of investigation, from which such great discoveries in natural knowledge have been made in the present and last age, were equally in the possession of mankind several thousand years before." 2 No true pastor can refrain from testing his religious convictions, from attempting to make them accurate, reliable, and consistent, and what is this but to form a theology? Religious questions, now as ever, stir the warmest blood of our times, and that pastor is untrue to the highest ideal of his office who shirks the questions which disturb not only this age but all ages. The Fall of Man has its problems; the doctrine of the Trinity has its difficulties; the Bible is not

An Essay on the Development of Christian Doctrine, 1845, pp. 97, 98.
 The Analogy of Religion, part ii., chap. iii.

wholly clear as the moon; beautiful and fascinating as is the character of Jesus, there are many enigmas in His life and work; and shall a man hope to preach the Gospel efficiently who cannot direct to some extent as well as sympathise with the intellectual perplexities of his age? Moreover, to study a true theology is to re-think the thoughts of God; for there is, as has been beautifully said, a "theology older than our schools, older than the earth and the stars, coeval with the Godhead; always yet never old, never yet ever new; dateless and deathless as the divine decrees." Is not the endeavour to catch and reproduce some points of that ideal yet most real theology worth the study of a life? He who works amongst men, conscious of that high calling, will inspire even when he cannot teach. In short, there can be no irrefragable certainty upon religious questions unless there is either a confidence in the religious reasonings of others, or else in our own theological foundation and superstructure; and the preacher who has not the accent of conviction had better be silent. Mature religious life must adopt a theology, or do its best to make one; and he is a poor religious teacher, and very immature, to use no harsher phrase, who cannot say "Follow me" in thought as well as life.

### § 2.

#### AIMS OF THIS INTRODUCTION TO THEOLOGY.

Turning from such high themes to the problem of this Introduction, that purpose is sufficiently indicated by the name. The end contemplated is to introduce the intending student of theology to the large and important range of studies he proposes to pursue. To this end the several branches and methods of the theological sciences are to be rapidly reviewed. Such an Introduction should survey every section of theology. Without some knowledge of the whole, it is hardly possible to form a proper idea of, to say nothing of arranging a suitable plan for, the investigating of any part, as will be more clearly understood as we

proceed. Still, even at this stage the necessity for laying a broad foundation may be made evident. It is true that the intending preacher might think that all he had to do was to study preaching, but the preacher who would preach well must have some skill in the interpretation of Scripture, should have some sound opinions upon Christian doctrine, and would be wise to have some acquaintance with the history of the Church, the entire range of theology thus ministering to his success. The systematic theologian again, solely anxious to form precise views of the teaching of Christianity, might imagine that he could betake himself straightway to his special study, but, as a matter of fact, he is unable to proceed a step without a minute acquaintance with the language and declarations of Scripture, and without some knowledge of the opinions of the great religious and philosophical writers of all ages. Further, no man can investigate the history of the Church to advantage without a familiar knowledge of the Apostolic Age, and this implies accurate exegesis; nor can the commentator dispense with what other interpreters, whether preachers or theologians, have thought to be contained in the sacred Christian books. In short, every branch of theology is so interlaced with every other branch, that at least a general survey of the whole field of theological study is indispensable to any scientific acquaintance with the tiniest constituent section. An Introduction to theology has therefore to answer, concerning all parts of theology, such questions as these, what should be learnt by the student of theology, why, when, and how.

Remembering these phases of the problem to be solved, this Introduction will be conveniently divided into two parts. In the first part, the theological sciences as a whole will call for consideration. We must settle what is meant by theology. We must then inquire as to the relations between theology and religion, theology and philosophy, theology and science, several highly important conclusions revealing themselves during the discussion. It is further needful to inquire what place theology holds in the classification of all the sciences, the several schemes of Auguste Comte, Herbert Spencer, and others requiring attention. Sub-

sequently, the classification of the several theological sciences themselves must be determined. Nor should the principles and results of Bibliography in its application to theological inquiry be overlooked, even if practical rules which may wisely guide in the general pursuit of theological investigation be not added.

The branches of theology having been enumerated in the first part, in the second part these several branches themselves must be considered. In this Specific Part the separate theological sciences should be passed under review consecutively, their several definitions being framed, their relations to the other theological sciences shown, their utility examined, their method described, their varieties and sections stated, their history sketched, the best books for their study named and characterised, and rules being presented for their successful pursuit. And all this must be done, to use an expressive word of Bishop Marsh's, in a luminous order; for it is imperative that the separate sciences be studied according to a scientific arrangement. Our inquiry may contain all the divisions and subdivisions of theology, but unless it expounds them in an appropriate order, it can never produce conviction, it can never lead to that which is the ultimate object of all theological study, the establishment and forcible proclamation of the great truths of Christianity. The several departments must be so arranged that the one follows upon the other in regulated succession. The consequences which would follow the violation of this rule may be best illustrated by an example. Suppose, for instance, that a professor of dogmatics begins his course of lectures with the doctrine of the Inspiration of the Bible. This doctrine, however true in itself, or however sure the arguments by which it may be demonstrated, cannot possibly, in that stage of his inquiry, be proved to the satisfaction of his audience, because he has not yet established other truths from which this truth must be deduced. Whether he appeals in confirmation of the doctrine to the promises of Christ to His disciples, or to the declarations of the apostles, he must assume that those promises were really made, that is, he must take for granted the authenticity of the writings in which those promises and declarations are recorded. He must also assume that the text of the Scriptures upon which he relies is the very same text which was written in the first century, and has been transmitted without an error through eighteen centuries more. He is also obliged to suppose that the interpretations placed by him upon the several passages quoted in proof are alone correct. Further, his entire argument proceeds on the basis, which surely calls for some support in turn, that the collection of religious books we call the Scriptures contains all the inspired writings in the world, and none which are not inspired. From this example, therefore, the necessity is seen of method in the study of theology, of so arranging the several parts of theology that no argument be founded upon any proposition not already substantiated. Nor is it sufficient to describe and arrange the several parts of theology. The grounds of arrangement, the modes of connection, should be reasoned.

So much may suffice to explain the general problem. But it is desirable to state distinctly that a collateral object should be, to teach where the best information can be obtained upon the numerous subjects which will come under review. Some guidance should therefore be given to the authors who have written upon the several subjects, in which connection the quaint words of Bishop Hall are noteworthy. "What a happiness is it," he says, "that, without all offence of necromancy, I may call up any of the ancient worthies of learning whether human or divine, and confer with them of all my doubts! that I can at pleasure summon whole synods of reverend fathers and acute doctors from all the coasts of the earth, to give their well-studied judgments in all points of question which I propose. Neither can I cast my eye casually upon any of their silent matters, but I must learn somewhat. It is a wantonness to complain of choice. No law binds us to read all: but the more we can take in and digest, the better liking must the mind needs be. Blessed be God that hath set up so many clear lamps in His Church: now none but the wilfully blind can plead

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Compare Marsh, A Course of Lectures on the Several Branches of Divinity. Cambridge, 1809, p. 5.

darkness. And blessed be the memory of those His faithful servants, that have left their blood, their spirits, their lives, in their precious papers, and have willingly wasted themselves into these during monuments to give light to others." "By habitual communion with loftier spirits," wrote Montgomery, "we not only are enabled to think their thoughts, speak their dialects, feel their emotions, but our own thoughts are refined, our scanty language is enriched, our common feelings are elevated." Some guide to the written theological monuments of the past and present should therefore be provided by such an Introduction as this. Nor is it enough for the purpose, as in some introductions, to give a catalogue of theological books arranged alphabetically or chronologically; there should be a classification under heads, and the heads themselves should be reduced to a proper system. In some way, too, the contents of the principal works elucidatory of the several divisions and subdivisions of theology should be tersely represented, and, as far as practicable, placed in their historical setting. Further, remembering the multiplicity of books, there should be a rigorous process of selection. Books upon any subject of value to the student are of two kinds,—those which form the epochs in the history of the subject, and those which present the subject in its maturest form; all other books may be allowed to gather dust undisturbed upon the shelves of libraries, being of interest to the librarian or bibliophile rather than the student. Everything else that needs be said upon this very important subject of books of reference will come more suitably in the section on the Bibliography of Theology.

Should a course of study so comprehensive in its plan appear too much for one man either to pursue or teach, the generalising purpose of the whole must be borne in mind. It is wholly foreign to the plan laid down to afford a copious or thorough insight into any single branch of theology, to say nothing of all those branches taken together,—in which case the examination would be brought to a conclusion in no single life. As regards the learner, it will be well for the world if in time to come he surrenders all spare time to a thorough study of some section of theology, but the more ripe he is for

such minute investigation the more fully he will acknowledge his indebtedness to such an Introduction as this, which would prepare the way for accurate detail by general views. Indeed, when it is said that our task has reference to all the branches of theology, the word itself may be permitted to suggest the necessary qualification. If we have to describe the fruits which have been gathered from those branches and the storehouses where they have been garnered, we have not to do with the minute structure of those fruits or the elaborate process of their formation. Or, employing another illustration, the mark aimed at may be compared, not to a perfectly complete series of photographic views of a new country, but to a handy map or book of directions, from which the traveller may learn the road he must take, the stages he must go, and the best stopping-places, if he would arrive with ease, speed, and safety at his journey's end, descriptions of which kind are no less useful to the traveller through the paths of knowledge than to the explorer of unknown lands. What the beginner in theology requires, if he is to work at the greatest advantage, is a knowledge of the extent of his subject, of its groupings, of its light and shade and perspective, of those general bearings which enable him to appreciate any part in its relative position and due proportion. Microscopic investigation, at once close and limited, is apt to give erroneous impressions unless corrected by a philosophic breadth and justness of view only to be gained by a general acquaintance with the whole field of study. Exaggeration and distortion are the vices of specialists.

§ 3.

### UTILITY OF THIS INTRODUCTION TO THEOLOGY.

Proceeding, however, to a fuller statement of the usefulness of such an Introduction to the wide domain of theology as is here presented, it is well to remember, in the FIRST place, that knowledge of any kind is of value for its own sake, at once satisfying, quickening, enlarging, and strengthening the mind.

Still more valuable, SECONDLY, is knowledge when reduced to accuracy and order—systematic knowledge. In fact, no great progress can be made in any branch of learning until the particular truths included therein are viewed in their relations and connections with other truths. As said solid Andrew Fuller, "He whose belief consists of a number of positions, arranged in such a connection as to constitute a consistent whole, but who, from a sense of his imperfections and a remembrance of past errors, holds himself ready to add or retrench, as evidence shall require, is in a far more advantageous track for the attainment of truth and a real enlargement of mind than he who thinks without a system." In this respect the theological do not differ from the physical and moral sciences. "In the various branches of physical and moral science, we become acquainted with them in a prescribed order—an order more or less perfect according to the clearness and logical accuracy with which the relative connection of the principles involved is perceived. What competent teacher of philosophy would inveigh against all general laws, all system, all methodical arrangement?" 1 Can, then, so comprehensive and vital and elaborate a series of facts and inferences as it is proposed to sketch be otherwise than eminently useful? In revelation no less than nature, unity, arrangement, development, law and design are manifest. Referring to the utility of the study of logic, Mr. John Stuart Mill wrote, that if such a science existed, it must be useful.<sup>2</sup> It might be as justly said, that if there be such a science of theological introduction as has been sketched, it cannot fail to be of advantage.

THIRDLY, as has been said in the preceding section, such a science would at least provide a handy guide to anyone desirous of knowing what theology is, what are the problems it has undertaken to solve, what results it has attained, what purposes it subserves,—its why, its what, and its wherefore; it would initiate into the methods peculiar to theology as well as common to it with all sciences; the vast accumulation of theological literature would lie before the inquirer in so-

Dewar, Systematic Divinity, 1867, vol. i. p. 6.
 A System of Logic, vol. i. p. 10.

ordered a manner that some judicious familiarity therewith might appear possible within the compass of one short and busy life; even a guide to the purchase of books, and suggestions for the arrangement of the shelves of a library, would be provided; in a word, such an outline of theology would, at the very beginning of his difficult task, put the learner at a height and vantage only attainable by the combined labours of many generations of specialists, and giving that practical insight into the entire ground covered by the science to be acquired, which makes all reading studious, all labour fruitful, and all research timely. This introductory study has been already likened to a map in unknown lands; it might equally be called a plan to the explorer of a new city, or a sketch drawn by an expert and put into the hands of the visitor on the threshold of a great and splendid cathedral of many styles and an extended history. Many thinkers have expressed their sense of the high value of such a survey into the entire field of related knowledge when placed in the hand at the portal of theological study. Says Clarisse justly, "Tot vero doctrinarum campum, tam late patentem, nemo feliciter emetietur, nisi illas omnes prius, in compendium quasi redactas et sub uno veluti adspectu collocatas, eorumque nexum, et quomodo aliæ ex aliis pendant, mentis oculis circumspexerit": 1—" So great indeed are the fields of doctrine, and so wide-reaching, that no one will survey them felicitously, unless at the outset he perceive them all with his mental eye reduced into a kind of compendium, and brought, so to speak, under one glance, together with their relations and interdependence." Hagenbach expresses the same opinion in this way: "Every student," he says, "should seek to procure from the beginning of his labours a general view of (theological) knowledge, not to deliver himself superficially on every conceivable subject, but to be able to find his latitude and longitude in the orbis doctrine."2 Again, so great a thinker as Schelling has written: "The special relation to a single section of a great subject

<sup>1</sup> Encyclopediæ Theologicæ Epitome, 1835, p. 2.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Hagenbach, Encyklopädie und Methodologie der theologischen Wissenschaften, § 1.

must be preceded by a knowledge of the organic whole: the man who gives himself to any precise science must learn the place it occupies in the whole, the special spirit which animates it, as well as the manner in which it is harmoniously connected with the whole; he must know the manner in which he must pursue this science itself, in order that he may proceed not as a slave, but as a free man, and in the spirit of the whole." 1 "The most natural and suitable introduction to the study of a science," said Rothe, "is the exposition of the purpose of its pursuit in all its essential elements and in its necessary coherence,—the presentation of the organic complex of the specific parts into which it is divided, and in which it is to be treated, if it is possibly to be grappled with."2 Doubtless some theologians, like some naturalists, may, as careful collectors of facts, render useful service; but as is true of the naturalist who aspires to be scientific, a biologist as well as a naturalist, the theologian must blend thoughts with facts, generalisations with observations, knowledge of wholes with knowledge of particulars; he must place the part in the whole, and adjust the whole to contain the part, if he would render the highest scientific service. Now it is just this knowledge of bearings which an introduction to theology such as is proposed can both implant and mature. As has been well said in a book which has had some influence in the collegiate arrangements of America, "So far-reaching and universal are the relations of things, that no one thing can be fully known without a knowledge of a multitude of other things. Hence, in order to teach anything to the best advantage, the teacher needs to know not only that particular thing, but everything else to which it stands related. The best method of teaching a child his alphabet is a question involving profound principles of philology, as well as mental philosophy. None but a profound scholar and philosopher is qualified to make a spelling book. . . . A good reading book can only be prepared by a man of correct taste, wide acquaintance with literature, and finished classical education. ... The best text-books in the natural sciences for the

<sup>1</sup> Schelling, Methodologie, p. 7.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Rothe, Theologische Encyklopädie, 1880, p. 1.

use of schools and academies have been prepared by the professors and teachers of natural science. . . . Other things being equal, the more a man knows of everything, the better he can teach anything; and the more thorough and complete the discipline of his own mind, the better he can impart even a little discipline to the mind of another. A well-educated man will give the best education to a child." 1 The truth so ably illustrated every preacher should bear in mind. He who is aptest in theology will, other things being equal, be the most efficient teacher of divine things even to a popular audience. Whilst, therefore, this Introduction will show the need of perseverance and patience to the beginner who would for intensely practical ends enter the wide fields of theology, it will at the same time impart instruction as to what implements should be used in fruitful tillage, what seed sown, what weeds eradicated, and what harvests expected.

And, FOURTHLY, turning from the nature of the case to actual history, it is noteworthy concerning such educational helps as this Introduction, that they have always appeared in groups whenever a more vital interest has been aroused in theological matters. More enthusiastic practice has demanded more careful training, and a greater satisfaction of the desire to know has borne fruit in turn in an augmented determination to do. All the great epochs in religious advance have produced their crop of theological introductions.

Thus, in the Fourth Century, when the splendid success of Christianity in the conquest of the Roman Empire gave an increased status to the advocates of the Gospel of Jesus, awakening a wider desire to hear and understand, the necessity for a handy guide for ministerial students through the special subjects they were to officially teach showed itself very clearly, and was responded to by several books not without interest even to-day. Introductions to theology of a more scientific kind are, it is true, modern, but helps for students have often been prepared containing more or less of scientific matter. A good instance was Chrysostom's interesting work on the priesthood,  $\Pi\epsilon\rho$  Termovivns, which has been several times translated, and which lays down an exalted

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Professor Tyler, Prayer for Colleges, New York, 1855, pp. 73, 74.

idea of ministerial life on its intellectual as well as its moral side. The work of Ambrose, *De officiis ministeriorum*, was almost wholly of a practical nature; but Augustine, his more famous pupil, followed very largely along the lines of Chrysostom, and wrote, with his peculiar theological insight and sympathy, his excellent *De doctrina christiana*, in four books, specially designed for the use of preachers.

So, too, in the Middle Ages, the schoolmen, in their zeal for theology, gave to their pupils the Didascalion of Hugo of St. Victor and the Speculum doctrinale of Vincent of Beauvais, who earned for himself the title of a man "immensæ lectionis." On the other hand, the reactionary movement against scholasticism had its students' guides in the letters of Gerson, De reformatione theologiae, and those other letters of his to the college of Navarre, Quid et qualiter studere debeat novus theologiae auditor, et contra curiositatem studentium, and also in the De studio theologico of Nicolaus of Clemangis. Incidentally scientific only as are these books, it is notwithstanding of interest to observe how, wherever theological education was pursued with vigour, introductions were desiderated to the theoretical side of the pastor's life.

The great awakening of the Sixteenth Century bears witness to the same fact. The origin, indeed, of the modern Introduction to Theology is, like so much other learning, distinctly traceable to the Reformation. Here Erasmus led the way with his Ratio seu methodus compendio perveniendi ad veram theologiam, which he wrote as a preface to the second edition of his New Testament, published in 1519, and afterwards issued in an enlarged and separate form in 1522. Matthew Arnold of his day required of the interpreter of Scripture a wide culture—Latin and Greek and Hebrew, logic, arithmetic, rhetoric, and music, and some knowledge, if possible, of natural history, geography, and astronomy. Melancthon, also, perceiving the need of an accurate theological training for his students if the great work of Luther was to stand, gave himself personally to effect this, and in a manner well shown by his little work on our science, in three folio pages, his Brevis ratio discendæ theologiæ. As a result of the increased interest in theology aroused by Melancthon,

ten notable books were written, as Introductions to Theology, in the Lutheran Church alone before the close of the sixteenth century, thus testifying at once to the method of the professional teachers of that body and to the number of students of theology: A similar need was apparently felt in the Reformed Church, being met by text-books penned by such men as Bullinger, the successor of Zwingli in the pastorate of Zurich, who wrote a Ratio studii theologici; as Conrad Gesner, who devoted to theology the last book of his Pandectarum universalium libri (which would be nowadays called an encyclopædia), and as Andreas Gerhard of Ypern, a professor at Marburg, who wrote a work in four books, De theologo seu de ratione studii theologici.

In the times subsequent to the Reformation, the same fact is seen. Although the treatment of theological introduction naturally declared the various movements which passed over the Protestant Churches, it is nevertheless sufficiently evident how each successive school of thought felt it advisable to have its own handbook for beginners. Thus there were works written after the manner of the Protestant scholasticism of the seventeenth century, amongst which may be mentioned two prefatory books of Alsted in his Methodus sacrosanctæ theologiæ, published at Hanover in 1623, the Meletemata de officio doctoris christiani of Frey (1711-1715), and the notable Methodus studii theologici publicis prælectionibus in acad. Jenensi of the great theologian John Gerhard. Similarly, in giving new voice to Pietism, Spener put forth his Piis desideriis and his De impedimentis studii theologici, his example being followed by others of his school. The more liberal tendency in theology made its special contribution in the Apparatus theologici of George Calixt, whose eclecticism made him the mark for most of the hard names of his day. Further, when both the Lutheran and Reformed Churches of the Continent had assimilated the good of Pietism, new expositions were given for beginners from the amended standpoint, by Pfaff, Introductio in historian theologia literariam (1724-1726); by Buddeus, Isagoge historico-theologica ad theologiam universam singulasque ejus partes (2 vols., 1727); by Walch, Einleitung in die theologischen Wissenschaften (2nd edit., Jena

1753); by Mosheim, Kurze Anweisung die Gottesgelahrtheit vernünftig zuerlernen (1756); and by Mursinna, who introduced the name of Encyclopædia for our science, as will be shown in the next section, Prima linear encyclopediar theologicar in usum, etc. (2nd edit., 1784). Yet again the Rationalistic party found it necessary to have their text-book, written by their great leader Semler, under the title of Institutio brevior ad liberalem eruditionem theologicam, published in 1764 and 1765, and issued in an enlarged edition in 1777. Semler's work did no other good, it at any rate supplied the motive for Herder's admirable letters on the Study of Theology, which may even now be read with advantage for their strong human interest, their conspicuous literary ability, their appreciation of Scripture, their poetry and thought and beauty (J. G. von Herder's Sümmtliche Werke, edit. 1852, vols. 11 and 12).

In like manner, the religious phases of this Present Century have been reflected in Germany in the introductions published, just as an increased interest in England and America in theological studies has produced some similar books. Speaking broadly, the German theologians of recent times may be divided into the orthodox Lutherans and Calvinists, the Hegelian school, the followers of Schleiermacher, and the disciples of Ritschl. Each section has issued its introductions to theology. Harless, Encyklopadie und Methodologie, 1837, is a Lutheran work, valuable, however, for its historical sketch of the development of theology and for its copious literature. The Encyklopädic der theologischen Wissenschaften of Rosenkranz, 1865, is thoroughly Hegelian. Schleiermacher himself gave the greatest possible impetus to our study by his Darstellung des theologischen Studiums zur Behufe einleitender Vorlesungen, of which, and its many followers, more presently in section 5, where also recent English works will be named and characterised, and where the example of the Roman Catholic theologians will afford an additional instance of the general truth. Of the Ritschlian Encyclopædia by Heinrici, more will be said in section 5.

FIFTHLY, such an introduction as this has its place to some extent in the thought of the mature theologian as well as of

the beginner. Introductions of the kind intended are peculiarly deserving of the name of systematic theology. Only in so far as they are based on good systematisation are they capable of being good guides, at once adequate and clear. This systematic groundwork will remain of permanent value, rendering command easy over the enormous detail daily accumulating, and suggesting many a valuable hint as to method and relative importance.

LASTLY, discovery as well as culture, investigation as well as acquisition, may be aided by such an introduction. Gaps in the evidence, unexplored regions, districts insufficiently surveyed, results that are meagre, and results that are untrustworthy,—touchstones for the past, finger-posts for the present, and clues for the future,-all open before us as our systematic plan discloses its logical consequences and its promise of fertility. This book, be it remembered, distinctly aims at being a guide to progressive theology, to theology that is of a scientific and free, as opposed to a theology that is of a confessional and unprogressive kind. If, therefore, the plan is of any value, it will not only guide to the present condition of theological knowledge, but will point the way to the most pressing needs of the near future. Whilst it helps to train some in theology, to some it should suggest careers

§ 4.

# RELATION OF THIS INTRODUCTION TO THEOLOGICAL ENCYCLOPÆDIA AND METHODOLOGY.

But it is now time to draw attention to some other names which have been suggested for what is here called theological introduction. For example, following the analogy of the word logic, which is the science of the sciences, Räbiger 1 proposes to call the Introduction to Theology—the science of the theologies, so to speak—*Theologic*. The great difficulty in the use of this term in English would be its employment in its adjectival form; "theological," meaning

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Räbiger, Theologik oder Encyklopädie der Theologie, 1880, p. 100.

"that which pertains to theology generally as well as to theological introduction," being too established in common use to permit of a change of connotation. Nor is this term of Räbiger's the usual German technicality. From what has been previously said as to the aims of theological introduction, they are seen to be twofold,—to furnish on the one hand a sketch of theology and its several branches in their organic connections and relations, and on the other hand to provide a plan of theological study, showing the order in which the various topics are best taken up, and indicating the best methods, the necessary helps, the useful books. This latter branch, the practice of theological introduction as we should say, the Germans call methodology; the former, the theory of theological introduction as we should say, they call encyclopædia,-together, the encyclopædia and methodology of theology. Theological Encyclopædia (to be carefully distinguished from Real-Encyklopaedie, an encyclopædia of facts in any order, alphabetical or otherwise) is, says Zöckler, "the science of the idea (Begriff) and the contents (Inbegriff) of theology." 1 Theological methodology is, says Hagenbach, "applied encyclopædia." Adopting, therefore, a well-known English distinction, the Encyclopædia of theology would be equivalent to the science, and the Methodology of theology to the art, of theological introduction. Methodology has a practical end, and Encyclopædia a theoretical. In their love for technicalities, Methodology has also been termed by the Germans, Hodegetic (from όδηγός, a guide) and Propædeutic (from προπαιδεύω, to impart preparatory teaching).

The significance and origin of the use of encyclopædia in this sense is not far to seek. The Greeks gave the names of ἐγκύκλιος παιδεία or ἀγωγή, ἐγκύκλια παιδεύματα, μαθήματα or γράμματα to those branches of knowledge which belonged to the culture of every free man. The corresponding terms adopted by the Romans were the artes liberales and the artes ingenuæ. The actual word ἐγκυκλοπαιδεία first occurs, it

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Zöckler, Handbuch der theologischen Wissenschaften in encyklopädischer Darstellung, 1882–1884, vol. i. p. 85.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Hagenbach, Encyklopadic und Methodologie der theologischen Wissenschaften, edit. 10, 1880, § 3.

would seem, in the writings of the Greek physician Galen, who wrote in the second century before Christ. What these branches of a liberal education were, was naturally a matter of considerable controversy, opinions varying much at different times; but from the time of Augustine, and throughout the Middle Ages, seven such sciences and arts were accepted (septem liberales artes), divided into a lower course or trivium (whence our word "trivial") of grammar, dialectic and rhetoric, and a quadrivium, or higher course, of arithmetic, geometry, astronomy, and music. Very intelligibly this convenient general term encyclopædia came, in the advance of knowledge, to be applied to the entire range of truth of a professional as well as a preparatory kind. Further, it was only an application of the same general idea when, in the age succeeding the Reformation, men came to speak of the encyclopædia of jurisprudence, of medicine, and of other arts and professions. meaning thereby the complete range of facts and inferences belonging to each branch. It was, however, a more distinct return to earlier usage when, in the seventeenth century, as has been mentioned in the preceding section, Mursinna, on the look-out for a suitable term, applied the word, not to the entire range of theology, but to its introduction.

So much, then, for the meaning, and history of the use, of this German technicality. It is doubtful, however, whether any good has resulted from its introduction into English, almost inevitably suggesting as it does to an Englishman the arrangement of all sorts of subjects in alphabetical order. At any rate the simpler term Introduction to Theology, being as clear and more appropriate, has been preferred. Nor does there seem any good reason for speaking of the pure and the applied science as the encyclopædia and methodology of theology. By a purist, it is true, the two sections might be separately treated; but, seeing that the common practice of their united treatment has its grounds in usage and utility, the one name has been regarded as adequate for both theory and practice. To an Englishman it would appear pedantic to speak of the Encyclopædia and Methodology of Biology, where Introduction to Biology would suffice, and the same remark applies to all branches of knowledge, theology included. At least, such is the verdict of English usage, as the next section shows.

§ 5.

### RECENT WORKS ON THEOLOGICAL INTRODUCTION.

In concluding these prefatory considerations, and before advancing to the consideration of the idea and relations of theology in general, a few words may be wisely devoted to the recent works which have dealt with the subject before us. In this science, as in most branches of theology, the Protestant Churches of Germany have taken the lead, whilst followers of some note have been found in Holland, France, and the Euglish-speaking nations, even the Romish theologians finding it desirable to write text-books from their own peculiar standpoint. Turning therefore first to Germany, we shall next cross the frontiers of the Fatherland to Holland and France, thence pass to England and America, completing our survey by some glances at the labours of Rome in the matter of Introduction to theology.

It was Schleiermacher's treatise already mentioned which brought Theological Introduction again to the front in GER-MANY. First published, however, in 1811, the full effect of the Kurze Darstellung des theologischen Studiums was not felt until the second edition appeared in 1830. powerful grasp of the whole displayed therein, the logical statement of the problems and relations of the several parts, and the rigorous obedience to the lead of the guiding principle adopted, have proved very suggestive and stimulating to subsequent writers. If the book itself be superseded, its influence remains, and recent works owe much to its inspiration. A translation by William Farrer was published at Edinburgh in 1850 under the title, A Brief Outline of the Study of Theology. It is not necessary to give the titles even of all the works suggested by Schleiermacher's, but the prominent writers may be mentioned. One good result was Hagenbach's Encyklopädie und Methodologie der theologischen Wissenschaften, the most useful German manual upon the

subject; the first edition appeared in 1833, and the eleventh in 1889, edited by Max Reischle on the basis of the several editions issued by Kautzsch since the death of Hagenbach in 1874; altogether it is a work of great practical value, a little confused in its division of the subject, and rather too much given to scholarly digression and irrelevant additions, but invaluable for its historical sketches, its thoroughness, and its references to German books. A free rendering of Hagenbach, with large additions to the English and American literature, has been issued in New York, 1884, by Drs. Crooks and Hurst, under the title, Theological Encyclopædia and Methodology, on the basis of Hagenbach; it forms vol. iii. of the Biblical and Theological Library of the Methodist Episcopal Church: as in Hagenbach, the books mentioned are for the most part simply named and not characterised, a few characterisations appearing, however, in the lists of English and American literature. A freer rendering still of Hagenbach has been made by Revere Franklin Weidner,—a rendering so free as to make a new book; its full title is Theological Encyclopædia and Methodology, based on Hagenbach and Krauth (Dr. Krauth, who had lectured on Theological Encyclopædia for years, left manuscript which could be utilised). Weidner's text-book was published at Philadelphia, U.S.A., in three small vols., from 1885 to 1891: it contains good and original lists of books. Pelt's Theologische Encyklopädic (Hamburg 1843) follows Schleiermacher's method closely, but is a thorough and erudite work, careful in statement, broad in range, and accurate in literature, not equal, however, to Hagenbach's work, with all its faults. The errors in general view so conspicuous in Hagenbach are to some extent rectified in Räbiger's Theologik oder Encyklopädie der Theologie, Leipsic 1880, to which a brief supplement was published in 1882, entitled Zur theologischen Encyklopädie, in which some minor improvements were made and the literature of the subject was corrected to date. Although Räbiger does not supersede Hagenbach in practical value, he has undoubtedly added considerably to the scientific definitions and arrangement of the constituent sciences which together form theology in Hagenbach's view. In fact, Räbiger has taken the general arrangement of Hagenbach (which differs much from that adopted in this book), and applied it more consistently to the detail of the system. Räbiger has also given a very elaborate history of the study of theological encyclopædia from the days of Chrysostom to the present,—of course, like all Germans, regarding modern foreign contributions to his subject as beneath notice. A good translation of Räbiger, and his supplementary tractate, has been made by the Rev. John Macpherson, in the Foreign Theological Library, 2 vols. Edinburgh 1884, 1885, the translator having added several good notes, and supplemented the lists of books, especially the lists of English books. Perhaps it should be added that the standpoint of Räbiger, in both doctrine and style, is not only very German, as we might expect, but coloured beyond expectation or necessity by theological bias. Since their lamented deaths, posthumous works by Von Hofmann, Lange, and Rothe upon the subject before us have been edited from their papers, of interest, however, rather as formulating the general theological views of those very individual thinkers than as permanent contributions to our study. The works are called respectively, Encyklopädie der Theologie, by T. C. K. von Hofmann, edited from lectures and manuscripts, by H. T. Bestmann, 1879; Grundriss der theologischen Encyklopädie, mit Einschluss der Methodologie, by T. P. Lange, Heidelberg 1877; and Theologische Encyklopädie, by Richard Rothe, edited from his remains by Hermann Ruppelius, 1880. 1882, and the following years, another great handbook was issued under the editorship of Otto Zöckler, with the cooperation of many distinguished scholars. This Handbuch der theologischen Wissenschaften in encyklopädischer Darstellung, in 3 vols., is not, however, a handbook of theological introduction, but a handbook of the theological sciences, very admirable in its way. Its purpose is, on a plan suggested by the science of theological introduction, to afford in one work a series of guides to the special theological sciences written by specialists, and its scientific arrangement is quite subordinate to its practical purpose. So good a thing, however, was this handbook, that a second edition, in 4 vols., carefully revised, was issued in 1885, and a supplemental

volume in 1890 (see § 15 (3)). Another notable book is the *Theologische Encyklopädie* of C. F. Georg Heinrici, one of the divisions of the *Grundriss der theologischen Wissenschaften*, which a company of sympathisers with the Ritschlian positions are issuing. Compact in form and statement, the work is not half the size of Hagenbach; its definitions are clear, its arrangement logical, and its literature well selected and up to date; like Hagenbach and other German writers, it identifies theology with Christian theology.

Of works produced in Holland, there is a noteworthy one by Clarisse, Encyclopædiæ theologicæ epitome, 2nd edition. 1835, noteworthy, that is to say, for its numerous practical suggestions to the theological student, and for its copious literature, which is unusually full in references to English books. Clarisse's work, however, belongs to the time before Schleiermacher, and lacks scientific method. Two Groningen professors, Hofstede de Groot and L. G. Pareau, in their Encyclopædia theologi christiani, the first edition of which was published in 1840, and the fifth in 1851, spread the views of Schleiermacher in Holland, with much individuality. In 1876, Doedes, in his Encyclopedie der christelijke Theologie, displayed considerable scientific skill, following the main lines of Hagenbach with much acute and original remark; a second edition of this book appeared in 1883. Baljon's De Inrichting van de Encyclopedie der christelijke Theologie, 1889, deserves honourable mention. But by far the most important Dutch work is A. Kuyper's Encyclopædie der heilige Godgeleerdheid, published in three large volumes at Amsterdam in 1894. Its first volume (Introductory Part) gives the best history and criticism of works on Theological Encyclopædia yet written; its second volume (General Part) deals with the ideas of science and theology, and the method, division, and history of theology; its third volume (Special Part) treats seriatim of the bibliological, ecclesiological, dogmatological, and diaconological groups of the theological sciences. The whole work is an admirable contribution to the theoretical side of introduction to theology.

The Protestant Churches of France and Switzerland have made few original contributions this century to the

scientific study of theological introduction. There is, first, the small treatise of Kienlen, a thesis written for a doctorate, and published in 1842; it follows the lines of Schleiermacher, and is written clearly. Then follow three articles in the Bulletin Théologique of the Revue Chrétienne for 1863 and two following years, by Godet, Pronier, and Thomas. In 1878, Edouard Vaucher published an Essai de Méthodologic des sciences théologiques, too individual to be of much value. good article on our subject, from the historical point of view, appears in Lichtenberger's Encyclopédie des sciences religieuses, written by the editor. In 1883, another thesis for a doctorate was printed by Ernest Martin, entitled Introduction à l'étude de la théologie protestante, sadly lacking thoroughness and breadth of view, whence arise its principal faults, viz. illogical peculiarities of division, lack of appreciation for the past history of theological introduction, and want of adaptation to the practical wants of students; its best section is that on the utility of an encyclopædic view of theology. A much better book is A. Grétillat's Méthodologie, the first volume of his Exposé de Théologie systématique, published at Neuchâtel in 1885. As its title states, this Méthodologie is an introduction to the study of systematic theology rather than of theology in general, and, valuable as are its processes and conclusions, its limitations are many: there is a list of books in French, German, and English at the end of the volume, somewhat illarranged.

Very few books which can be called introductions to theology of a scientific kind have appeared in English. Indeed, as yet, the practical needs of the theological student have scarcely given any impetus to the scientific presentation of the entire range of theology. Nevertheless, the practical guides, which have necessarily preceded the more thorough and orderly exposition, have had some scientific value. There are, for instance, many excellent remarks in books of pastoral theology on the best methods of study, and some special treatises deserve notice. Among these are Dodwell, Advice on Theological Studies, London 1691; Bennet, Directions for Studying, 3rd edition, London 1727; Cotton Mather, Manudictio in Ministerium, Boston 1726 (republished, with addi-

tions, as Mather's Student and Preacher, by Ryland, London 1755); Doddridge, Lectures, Works, London 1830; Bickersteth, Christian Student, 4th edition, London 1844. In the same category may be classed the very useful guides to the theological students at our universities, such as part iv. of the Student's Guide to the University of Cambridge, many editions, and A Guide to the Study of Theology, adapted more especially to the Oxford Honour School, written by F. H. Woods for the series of Oxford Study Guides. A good book of this class, brief and complete, intended primarily for the assistance of students preparing for ordination in the Episcopal Church of England, is The Student's Theological Manual, by G. H. Preston. In Marsh's Lectures on Divinity, Cambridge 1809-1822, there is a much stricter approximation in method and spirit to the German treatises: the full title is, "A Course of Lectures, containing a description and systematic arrangement of the several branches of Divinity, accompanied with an account, both of the principal authors, and of the progress which has been made at different periods in theological learning, by Herbert Marsh, D.D., F.R.S., Margaret Professor of Divinity"; a good title certainly; but alas! the execution is indifferent; the several branches are very unsystematically arranged, only a section of them is handled, and the treatment is too often popular rather than scientific; like all the Bishop's writings, it opens a world which it fails to explore. It is a great advance from Marsh to Drummond, Introduction to the Study of Theology, by James Drummond, Professor of Theology in Manchester New College, London 1884, 12mo. The express aim of Drummond is "to deal, not with the matter, but with the scientific form of theology, and to bring before the student the nature, method, and mutual relations of the various branches of theological study, so that he may see more clearly the bearing of his labours, and view the several departments of his work, not as incoherent fragments, but as constituent members, each with an appropriate place, in a collective organism which embraces them all." According to the scheme adopted, the several branches of theology are, first, philosophy; second, comparative religion; third, Biblical theology; fourth, ecclesiastical history; fifth,

systematic theology; and lastly, practical theology. It is no part of Mr. Drummond's plan to give either a sketch of the several branches treated (with one conspicuous exception systematic theology), or a historical sketch of the investigations already made in any branch; nor is there any reference to the best books for the student's use. Within the narrow limits assigned by the plan, however, the book is able and interesting, although the theological standpoint of the author necessarily vitiates many of the conclusions. The Introduction to Christian Theology of Professor Henry B. Smith, D.D., LL.D., a posthumous book published in New York in 1883 from the lamented author's notes, is an introduction to systematic theology, not an introduction to theology general,—very ably and suggestively done, be it added. book on Theological Encyclopædia compiled from the lectures of Dr. M'Clintock (the writer of an excellent article on Theological Encyclopædia in M'Clintock & Strong's Cyclopædia), and published at New York in 1873, the writer has not been able to obtain. R. V. Foster's Brief Introduction to the Study of Theology, published in New York and Chicago in 1889, is an introduction of a practical rather than a scientific interest; it is brief, clear, and popular,—a sort of primer upon the Introduction to Theology. On the other hand, Philip Schaff's Theological Propadeutic, a General Introduction to the Study of Theology, Exceptical, Historical, Systematic, and Practical, including Encyclopædia, Methodology, and Bibliography, published at New York, in two parts, in 1892 and 1893, is a work of first rank, as well as the first original American work on the subject. In principle and divisions it follows Hagenbach; its speciality is its fulness and completeness of treatment of historical theology, and the several historical sections: its lists of relative literature are well done.

Even Roman Catholic writers have not left this field of introduction untilled, the successful example of Ellies du Pin, in his well-known Méthode pour étudier la théologie, published in 1716, and subsequently translated into several languages, having been followed by other writers in the eighteenth century, most prominent amongst whom were Gerbert, who wrote in 1754 his "Apparatus for Theological

Erudition," and Oberthur, who wrote in Latin and in German upon Theological Encyclopædia and Methodology. The influence of Schleiermacher also made itself manifest in Drev. Kurze Einleitung in das Studium der Theologie mit Rücksicht auf den wissenschaftl. Standpunkt und das kath. System, published at Tübingen, 1819; in Klee, Encyklopädie der Theologie, Mainz 1832; in Staudenmaier, Encyklopädie der theologischen Wissenschaften als System der gesammten Theologie, 1st edition, Mainz 1834, 2nd edition, 1840, and some other writers. All these books are, of course, of purely historical interest to the English student of theology. The case is different with Kihn's Encyklopädie und Methodologie der Theologie, published at Freiburg in Breisgau, in 1892, as a part of the great Theologische Bibliothek. This book takes the place for Roman Catholic theology in Germany which Hagenbach takes for Protestant theology. Its arrangement is unusual. Theology is divided into Formal and Material. Under Formal Theology come the Ideal and Instrumental branches, the Ideal investigating the nature, history, and practical rules of the study of theology, as well as the relations of theology to philosophy; the Instrumental branch concerning itself with linguistic aids, with criticism and with hermeneutics. Material Theology is treated under the two heads of Historical Theology, with its Biblical and ecclesiastical branches, and Systematic Theology, with its theoretical branches (Dogmatics and Moral Theology) and its practical branches (Pastoral Theology and Ecclesiastical Law). The lists of books under the several headings, of course especially strong in Roman Catholic works, are peculiarly noteworthy. This book also is of first rank.



# PART I.

INTRODUCTION TO THE THEOLOGICAL SCIENCES
IN GENERAL.



#### DEFINITION OF THEOLOGY.

ET the study of the general relations of theology be begun with definitions. For definitions are a mental necessity. And definitions, to be useful, must be real, and not sentimental, of facts and not of opinions. For, as Stuckenberg has well said in his Introduction to the Study of Philosophy, "when two persons define the same word differently, the reason is found in the knowledge, the needs, the preferences, the prejudices, and perhaps the whims of the persons." For "an object may be viewed in two lights. We can ask what it is in itself, or we can content ourselves with the impression it makes on our minds . . . how it strikes." Naturally, however, in all valuable definition, we must pass from the naïve to the critical standpoint. Indeed, as the same able writer just quoted has said, "it is an epoch in the history of intellect when it begins to make objective truth the standard of subjective value." Thus we have to inquire what definitions of important words, such as theology, science, religion, philosophy, are warranted by present knowledge. And first, how shall theology be defined. The word theology, as a slight acquaintance with literature soon discloses, has been used in very different senses. Under the changing conditions of human knowledge, a series of adaptations in meaning have been necessitated by a widening view of the subject-matter of our science, whilst at the same time the older meanings have survived. According to Varro, there were three kinds of theology, one fabulous, the other natural, the third civil, the fabulous or mythical being the theology of the poets and the theatre, the civil being the theology of the people and the cities, and the natural being very much what is meant by natural theology to-day. To the Greeks

 $\theta \epsilon o \lambda o \gamma i a$  was an inquiry concerning the ancient deities and their relations to the world. Very naturally this convenient technicality passed over to the Christian Church, and, seeing that the earliest investigations concerning the Deity centred in the person of Christ, by a theologian was at first understood a student of the doctrine of the Son of God, or of the Trinity. John the Evangelist was distinctively the "theologian" by virtue of his doctrine of the Logos, and Gregory of Nazianzum and Athanasius attained to the same honourable name by their advocacy of the deity of Jesus. So late as the time of the First Crusade, Abelard called his two principal works, which treated of the Trinity, Introductio in theologiam and Theologia christiana. Already, however, another connotation was becoming common, for the Scholastics, in their more extended researches, found the advantage of using the word in the wider sense of "the doctrine of divine things," and it soon became usual to designate the systems of doctrine, elaborated by such men as Thomas Aquinas and Albertus Magnus, "sums" of theology, "Summa theologica" or "Summa universæ theologiæ." Yet again, the controversies which followed the Reformation led to a further extension, and there are frequent references to natural as well as revealed theology (Theologia Naturalis, Revelata). Of course θεολόγος varied in significance with θεολογία.

Passing to modern usage, it is again evident that several meanings are commonly attached to the word, theology having to do duty for different things in different writers, and even in the same writer in different contexts. First, in accordance with strict etymology, theology is the science of God, a sense as frequently met with to-day as in the days of Origen and Anselm. Theology in this sense is concerned with the being and attributes of God or of the Trinity. Sometimes a slightly wider meaning is attached to the term, theology being regarded as the science which treats of the doctrines of God and man in their several relations, in which sense, as Aquinas said, "Theologia a Deo docetur, Deum docet, ad Deum ducit,"—"is taught by God, teaches God, leads to God." Yet again, a

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Comp. Plato, Republic, ii. 379; Aristotle, Metaphysics, x. 6; Cicero, De Natura Deorum, iii. 21

third connotation is sometimes implied, in which case theology is used as the synonym for the Christian religion in all its forms treated scientifically, Biblical, historical, and practical, as well as doctrinal. A fourth usage is also becoming more and more frequent, according to which theology is concerned with heathen as well as Christian religions, and stands for the science of any religion, Mohammedan, Hindu, or Jewish. besides Christian. Nor is a fifth employment unusual, when the idea of science being dropped out, theology is supposed to deal with any truth or practice whatever associated with man in his superhuman relations, possibly a survival of ancient usage. In four cases, then, out of five (the fifth, however ancient, being commonly regarded as an aberration from justifiable speech), theology is considered as a science, that is, as a systematic examination of a class of facts, the class of facts varying. Thus, according to the intention of the writer or speaker, theology may be the science of God (theology proper), or the science of God and man in their mutual relations, past, present, and future (doctrinal theology), or the science of all the facts of the Christian religion without restriction to doctrines (Christian theology), or even the science of the facts of any religion (theology in general).

In this diversity of employment, it is highly desirable to have some exactitude of usage. Probably the best method for insuring precision is to restrict the word to the widest usage, adding modifying appellatives wherever necessary. Theology as such, then, is the science of religion; and natural, Parsi, Biblical, Christian, pastoral theology are the sciences respectively of the religion of nature, of Zoroaster, of the Bible, of Christ, of the working pastor. Such, at any rate, will be the usage in this book, although, not to be pedantic, the modifying appellatives may be sometimes omitted, where mistake is not easy. Doctrinal theology, for example, may frequently be substituted for doctrinal Christian theology, when the reader is not likely to be thinking of the doctrines of any non-Christian faith.

## § 7.

### WHAT IS RELIGION ?

Theology, then, being the science of religion, what is religion? In answering the question, little help is to be gained from etymology. Like "theology," "religion" is used in a variety of senses more or less remote from the original employment. In this case, further, there is a considerable difference of opinion as to the etymology. According to Cicero, religio is compounded of re and legere, to read again, to reflect upon, especially to study the sacred books in which a faith is delivered. According to Lactantius, religio is derived from religare, to bind back, because religion furnishes the true ground of obligation. It is not improbable that the latter derivation may be correct. Reference to such words as optare and optio, postulare and postulio, bellare and rebellio, would seem to show that many verbs in are were preceded by older forms in ere, from which the related nouns were derived, and, apart from the analogy thus supplied, there are actual indications of the existence at one time of a verb ligere with the sense of ligare. Nevertheless, historical evidence seems to favour the Ciceronian view.1

When we turn from etymology to usage, it is soon evident that religion is used in two very different senses at least, viz. in an objective sense, to indicate that which affects man in his superhuman relations; and in a subjective sense, to mean the state of mind produced by these superhuman relations. Max Müller draws attention to this difference of meaning in his Introduction to the Science of Religion, where he says: "It will be easily perceived that religion means at least two very different things. When we speak of the Jewish, or Christian, or Hindu religion, we mean a body of doctrines handed down by tradition, or in canonical books, and containing all that consti-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> A good summary of this philological question, and references to some exhaustive discussions thereupon, will be found in C. I. Nitzsch, System der christlichen Lehre, § 6; some more modern monographs on the question are mentioned in F. A. B. Nitzsch, Lehrbuch der evangelischen Dogmatik, § 15.

tutes the faith of Jew, Christian, or Hindu. Using religion in that sense, we may say that a man has changed his religion, that is, that he has adopted the Christian instead of the Brahmanical body of religious doctrines, just as a man may learn to speak English instead of Hindustani. But religion is also used in a different sense. As there is a faculty of speech, independent of all the historical forms of language, so there is a faculty of faith in man, independent of all historical religions. If we say that it is religion which distinguishes man from the animal, we do not mean the Christian or Jewish religion; we do not mean any special religion, but we mean a mental faculty, that faculty which, independent of, nay in spite of sense and reason, enables man to apprehend the Infinite under different names, and under varying disguise. Without that faculty, no religion, not even the lowest worship of idols and fetishes, would be possible; and if we will but listen attentively, we can hear in all religions a groaning of the spirit, a struggle to conceive the inconceivable, to utter the unutterable, a longing after the Infinite, a love of God." 1 Without endorsing all that Max Müller says here, this passage may be noticed as illustrating forcibly the objective and subjective meanings attached to religion in common usage. As recognised in conversation and literature, there are two classes of facts for which the one word does duty. Subjectively, religion is a matter of experience; objectively, religion is a matter of observation. Subjective religion may be increased by outward means, those outward means constituting objective religion. Yet again, each of these two classes of meanings has two tolerably well-defined sub-classes. Used subjectively, religion means either our state of mind in the presence of the superhuman, or the faculty which enables us to have such a sense. If there seems some confusion in speaking of religion, on its subjective side, as both a feeling and a faculty, this is only a consequence of the facts; in the paucity of language the facts of the case are responsible for the twofold usage. Religious feelings are so universal that they point to a religious faculty; it seems as natural for man to worship as to eat, or see, or hear, or smell. Objectively considered,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Pp. 16-18.

religion is either the knowledge or the cult afforded by or addressed to the subjective sense. Standing therefore on the broad platform of religion in general, of natural as well as revealed religion as the phrase goes, religion may mean four things,—a homage to a superior power, or the faculty which prompts that homage, the knowledge which is possessed concerning the object of homage, or the worship addressed to that object. Thus when we speak of the religion of a heathen, we mean his capacity for worship possibly, or his feeling in worship it may be, or what he thinks he knows about his God perhaps, or even the rites by which he desires to approach his deity. Similarly, we often speak of the Christian religion, meaning, it may be, either the doctrines or the worship peculiar to Christianity, or meaning, it may be, either the peculiar sentiments evoked by Christianity or the spiritual ability of the individual to whom Christianity is addressed.

So much, then, for the testimony of common usage; religion may refer to religious feeling, or religious knowledge, or religious cultus, or religious faculty. But here the question arises, whether further simplification can be introduced into the definition of religion. Certainly relations may be traced between these several significations and things signified; for religious feeling is the emotional consequent of religious knowledge, just as religious cults are the volitional consequents of what has been rationally apprehended, whilst no definition of the religious faculty can be framed except by definition of the variety of knowledge which that faculty supplies. If it be possible, therefore, to ascertain what is the differentia of religious knowledge, religious feeling will be definable as the emotional result of that knowledge, and religious worship as its volitional result. The religious faculty, too, as has been just said, is best expressed in terms of its product.

What, then, is religion in its most rudimentary form, or more accurately still, what is that germinal form of knowledge which we call religious, and which, when it affects the feelings, we call religious feeling, and which, when it moves the will, we call religious worship? In other words, what varieties of perceptions do we call religious?

The problem has occupied some of the greatest thinkers of

modern times. "Religion," said Kant, "is the recognition of all our duties as if they were Divine commandments"; but practically, whatever his words seem to imply, Kant identified two different things, religion and morality. With more justice, seeing that he introduces the supernatural into his statement, Fichte said, "Morality and religion are absolutely one, for both are a grasping of the supersensuous." Similarly said the younger Fichte, "Religion is conscious morality, a morality which, in virtue of that consciousness, is mindful of its origin from God." In essentially similar terms, Schelling said, "The first meaning of religion is consciousness, the highest unity between what we know and what we do." But all these definitions err by endeavouring to identify religion with one of its frequent effects. Pushing his analysis further, Schleiermacher found the seat of religion in feeling,— "Religion," said he, "is constituted of feeling, the absolute feeling of dependence upon God." Here again religion is defined by one of its effects; it is not the feeling of dependence which is the ultimate fact, but the rational perception of that supernal somewhat upon which the feeling of dependence follows; he needed to define what he calls God, and not dependence. There was point, therefore, in the reply of Hegel, who contended that religion had to do with the whole of our mental nature, with intellect and will, as well as with feeling; indeed, said he, "Religion is the relation of the subject, of the subjective consciousness to God, who is Spirit," a view which the elder Nitzsch has yet further amplified and corrected by saving that "Religion is an active and passive relation of the finite consciousness to the Creator, Preserver, and Ruler of all." These two definitions show progress, it is true, but they nevertheless still define religion by one of its effects; it is not the relation of the subject to the object which is the ultimate difficulty, or the primary fact, but the perception of the object. Max Müller's statement much more nearly satisfies the conditions of the problem, when he defines religion as "the perception of the infinite," meaning by the infinite that which "transcends our senses and our reason, always taking these words in their ordinary meaning."

Upon the essential nature of religion it is manifest, then,

various opinions have been advocated. These opinions, from the point of view before us, can be advantageously divided into three classes (for the mere popular use of the word "religion" for any form of enthusiasm for science or art or morals, may be excluded, as may that older usage, which still survives, according to which religion is synonymous with Christianity, a usage almost invariable in the doctrinal writings of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries).

Using religion, then, in its widest sense, as common not to Christians only, but to man as man, the views upon its essential nature may be conveniently divided into three classes, viz., first, those theories which regard religion as composite, the product of various elements of the human mind; second, those theories which regard religion as elementary, but still the outcome of the human mind alone; and third, those theories which regard religion as an elementary fact of human nature, but the outcome of supernal action upon the mind of man.

The first class of theories upon the nature of religion are those which do not regard religion as a primary but as a secondary constituent of the human mind. Thus some have regarded religion as a phase of Madness,—as a pathological phenomenon closely connected with neurosis and hysteria (though religious hysteria, mania, or melancholia are wholly distinct from religion). This "insipid" opinion, to use an epithet of De la Saussaye's, need not detain us. And some, such as Lucretius, Hobbes, Hume, and Von Hartmann, have analysed religion into Fear (forgetful of the fact that when fear ceases, religion should end, which is by no means the case). And some, like Kritias the Sophist, and Voltaire, and even Kuenen, have regarded religion as the outcome of Fraud (though here, again, surely when the fraud was patent, all religious feeling should be at an end). And some, like Professor Gruppe, have found a solution of the nature of religion in Selfishness, in the vanity of founders, in the delights of believers, and in the advantages gained by society (though here we wonder how self-sacrifice, which is so characteristic of religion, originated in selfishness). And some have explained religion, as have Comte, Lange, Feuerbach, and Bender, as man worshipping himself or his race, an opinion stated by Feuerbach thus: "Consciousness of God is self-consciousness; knowledge of God is self-knowledge; by his God thou knowest the man, and by the man his God; the two are identical." And some have found the first spring of religion in the worship of ancestors (though the point which calls for explanation is how the ghosts of ancestors have been erected into deities, without the conception of deities). Schleiermacher saw in religion, as we have seen, the sense of dependence; Peschel sees in religion the necessity for finding a cause of every event; Zeller sees therein the sense of need of good things, and Kaftan the sense of need of fuller life; John Stuart Mill the sense of need of an ideal, and Boyd Carpenter the sense of both need and dependence. Kant, as we have seen, thought religion the product of the moral sense, as think Ritschl, and Hermann, and Rauwenhoff. Brinton thinks religion the product of combined intellect and feeling. Lotze and Teichmüller think religion the product of both feeling and the moral sense. Darwin thinks religion the product of feeling and intellect and the moral sense. But the failure of all these theories to reconstruct religion by recompounding the elements they think they have discovered, declares their analysis incorrect. Analysis must end in synthesis if there is to be any confidence in the decomposition.

The SECOND class of theories upon the nature of religion are those which, whilst regarding religion as a primary constituent of human nature, consider that constituent to be of purely human origin. This class is not numerous; for once religion is seen to be unique, a Divine origin very speedily comes to be attributed thereto. Many expressions of Max Müller, and of Hegel, and of John Caird, and of Edward Caird, might be quoted in this connection, as well as of Descartes and the Cartesian theologians.

The THIRD class rapidly grow in numbers. In their view religion is an elementary constituent of human nature, due to a spiritual action upon the human mind. Sometimes such a view has, it is true, a Deistic form,—as that a primeval revelation was given to our primogenitors, and once given,

was allowed to work its own way without Divine interference. But it is in a much more interesting and satisfactory form that the theory is largely held to-day. Religion, in its elementary form, is spiritual intuition, with a spiritual world as object seen, and man as subject seeing, a view for which many great names may be quoted; such thinkers as Herder, Jacobi, Franz von Baader, Pfleiderer, Dorner, father and son, Frank, Biedermann, Kaehler, Heman, Gloatz, Theodore Parker, Martineau, De la Saussaye of Brussels, Harris of Yale, Kellogg of Toronto, Simon of Airedale, and Knight of St. Andrews. This, too, was the view to which the Darwinian Romanes was tending, as his most interesting Thoughts on Religion testifies.

According to this view man has a mental vision which includes the spiritual world; and this vision it is that constitutes religion. Where this vision is, there is religion. Where this vision is not, religion is not.

Let the theory be more carefully considered.

It is a commonplace to say that man has much knowledge. By the accumulated labours of many generations of inquiries knowledge of many kinds has been gained. So vast, indeed, is the sum of knowledge that only a specialist can hope to gain a bowing acquaintance with even a section of the great whole of knowledge.

Nevertheless, great as is the field of knowledge, all this multifarious wealth has, as every dabbler in philosophy knows, resulted from two great human endowments, the faculty of observation and the faculty of reflection. All that we know comes to us either from observation or reflection. In plainer words, all that we know has come to us from sight or reasoning. What man has seen, he knows. On what he has seen he reflects, and also knows. Without sight, there is no knowledge; without sight there can be no inference.

Now this human faculty of seeing—of gaining immediate knowledge (as contrasted with reasoning, by which mediate knowledge is gained)—makes man acquainted with three worlds.

By bodily sight man sees the external world, the world of nature. Man has perceptions,—intuitions,—beholdings,—visions,—seeings (whichever word be the clearer), of the great

world lying open before his senses. Man sees,—has, as the philosophers say, immediate knowledge of,—whatever the eye can see, the ear hear, or any of the senses convey. And fundamentally all these varieties of sense knowledge are the same in kind. They are mental seeing by the instrumentality of the senses. The mind of man sees, that is to say, by the ear and the tongue and the hand, as well as the eye. Thus a blind man has been known to lecture on what he saw in London. The eye and the hand are no more than the telescope, say, and the needle of a telegraphic apparatus. It is not the telescope which sees, but the eye which sees through the telescope. It is the telegraphist and not the needle which receives the message. Similarly, it is not the bodily eve which sees, but the mind that sees through the eye. It is not the hand that receives its command, but the mind through the hand. Sight is an inclusive term which may be used for all immediate knowledge received through the senses. Such knowledge is not religion, but has striking analogies therewith.

Again, by his mind man sees the great internal world. It is given to man to have intuitions,—beholdings,—perceptions,—seeings, of the great world lying before his introspective gaze. Under these self-perceptions, these seeings of the mind, come such highly interesting and important matters of immediate knowledge, as the consciousness of self in the various emotional moods (for example, self-loving or self-angry); as the consciousness of self in the several intellectual processes (for instance, self-judging or self-syllogising); as the consciousness of self in the several volitional attitudes (self-willing, let us say, or self-suspensive). Thus, again, sight is an inclusive term which may be used for all immediate knowledge received through consciousness. Nor is this knowledge religion; though, again, it has wonderful analogies thereto.

Yet again, by his mental eye, by his mind, man sees the great supernal world, the world divine and spiritual. It is given to man to have intuitions, beholdings, seeings,—immediate knowledge,—of the vast world lying open before his upward gaze. These spiritual seeings are as genuine as either the seeings of sense or the seeings of self. Spiritual hunger

is as real as physical inanition. Prayer is human as well as hunting. Morever, revelations from the world supernal have been seen by prophets and apostles and saints, and even by the rank and file of humanity. Religion, indeed, which fundamentally is apprehension of the spiritual world, is natural to man, is part of his mental endowment. Nor is this naturalness negatived by occasional instances of undeveloped or excised function. If some men have an atrophied spiritual sense, and are inhuman, so some have an atrophied intellectual sense, and are idiotic. If some ears cannot catch the music of the heavenly spheres, some are deaf to earthly harmonies. Thus sight again is an inclusive term which may be used for all immediate knowledge of the world supernal. It is this immediate knowledge of the spiritual world, which fundamentally is religion. The religious intuitions, like all intuitions, may be educated by use, and blurred by misuse. Nevertheless, that man has a perception of the supernal the universality of the perception shows. The perception of the supernal is religion. Religion, then, in its most rudimentary form, is a form of knowledge; it is knowledge of the supernal, using the term knowledge in its widest philosophical sense as that which we apprehend, as well as that which we comprehend. This knowledge is capable of unending increase, but it is still fundamentally perception of the supernal. The effect of this knowledge upon the emotional nature of man is to evoke religious feeling, or that feeling which we display in the presence of the supernal. The effect of this knowledge upon the volitional nature is to evoke religious activity, or that activity which we display in the presence of the supernal. Yet again, what we mean by the religious faculty is the ability man has of perceiving the supernal.

Religion, then, in its most elementary form, is perception of the supernal. And religion, in its widest sense, is the perception of the supernal together with the effects of that perception on the complex nature of man. Theology is that perception, and its consequents, reduced to scientific form. Theology, then, is the science of religion, and religion is all that feeling, knowledge, faculty, and cultus which man has

erected upon the basis of his perceptions of a supernal world.

Be it observed, however, that it has not been said that the bodily senses afford any intuition of the supernal world. nor has it been said that the logical understanding as such can attain to any knowledge of the spiritual. What is here said is that religion is, fundamentally, immediate knowledge not of the external or the internal but the supernal world. quote the words of Dr. Harris: "As man, being as to his body included in nature, is surrounded by a physical environment which is constantly acting on him, and presenting itself to his consciousness, so man as spirit is surrounded by a spiritual and supernatural environment which is constantly acting upon him and presenting itself in his consciousness." 1 Or. as Theodore Parker expressed the same fact: "Looking even superficially, but with earnestness, upon human affairs, we are driven to confess that there is in us a spiritual nature, which legitimately leads to religion; that as man's body is connected with the world of matter; rooted in it; has bodily wants, bodily senses to minister thereto, and a fund of external materials wherewith to gratify these senses and appeare these wants; so man's soul is connected with the world of spirit; rooted in God; has spiritual wants, and spiritual senses, and a fund of materials wherewith to gratify these spiritual senses and appease these spiritual wants." 2 Is not this experimental acquaintance with the supernal evident even in the reverential attitude of the more degraded heathen in the presence of nature, which they personify, nobilify, deify? Doubtless such experience is very rudimentary. But how much more than rudimentary vision of the supernal may become let such men testify as Thomas à Kempis, St. Bernard, and Jacob Behmen.

Indeed, the nature of religion becomes clearer as we remember that in all immediate knowledge the initiative is not taken by the mind that knows. Let the external world come in contact with the senses, and they image that external world; indeed, the image itself is no mean argument for the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Self-Revelation of God, p. 32.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Works, vol. i. p. 3.

reality of its cause. Let the internal world lie as a visible world before the mind, and the mind images that internal world, and again the image itself is no mean argument for the reality of its cause. Similarly, let the spiritual world come in contact with the human spirit, and that spirit mirrors the spiritual world, the reflection again being no mean argument for the spiritual reality. In all immediate knowledge of the world supernal that world must take the initiative. All is not settled as against religion, when it is proven that the mind of man cannot evolve God or the world supernal. For the question straightway arises whether God can affect man, whether the supernal world can disclose itself to man? Granting for the moment that the mind of man cannot think out God and the realms spiritual, can spiritual approach to our mundane sphere be reflected by any means in man's nature? So stated—as to whether the spiritual world can find man—the settlement of this question is surely not difficult. Our human nature is so endowed that it can apprehend spiritual things. As surely as man has a vision for the outer world, as surely as he has a vision for the inner world, so surely he has a vision for the upper world. This apprehension of spiritual things is the very basis of religion, the things that it sees, and thence infers.

Here a suggestive corollary enters. Religion follows, we have said, upon two facts, the spirit or Geist or mind of man, and the spiritual world. When the spiritual world touches the human spirit, and the human mind responds, in however indistinct or indefinite a way, in however "inarticulate" a way, to use a phrase of Professor Knight's, there is religion. In other words, religion results upon revelation: the touch of the spiritual world is revelation; supernal fact brought within the cognisance of man is revelation. Be it remembered, as Dr. Knight has said, in his Aspects of Theism, "it does not follow that inarticulate truths are less real than those which we can afterwards succeed in making explicit by the use of words. It may be that what is implicit and ideal is at the same time the most real of all truths we are competent to apprehend."

Theology, therefore, it might also be said, is the science of

revelation, meaning by revelation, communications from the supernal, the spiritual world,

To sum up, theology is religion treated scientifically; and religion, regarded from the side of man's nature, is, in its elementary form, perception of a supernal world; whereas, regarded from the side of the supernal world, religion is revelation.

#### BOOKS RECOMMENDED ON THE PHILOSOPHY OF RELIGION.

Note.—Books on the History or Phases of Philosophy are not inserted. The student will, however, find the best guide to books on Philosophy in Ueberweg, Grundriss der Geschichte der Philosophie, 1st part, Antiquity, 8th edit. by Max Heinze, Berlin 1894; 2nd part, Patristic and Scholastic Ages, 7th edit. by Max Heinze, Berlin 1886; 3rd part, Modern Times, 7th edit. by Max Heinze, Berlin 1888. The relative literature is carefully brought up to date in these latest editions. Unfortunately, the English translations of Ueberweg are of earlier editions; but these are good as late as they go.

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## \$ 8.

### IS THEOLOGY A SCIENCE?

But may theology be called a science, as has been done in the preceding pages again and again? Thus Mr. G. H. Lewes 1 speaks of "theology, philosophy, and science" as constituting "the spiritual triumvirate," as if theology were not science. Mr. Herbert Spencer<sup>2</sup> also invariably assumes that religion, even in its highest type of Christianity—and ordered religious ideas presumably which are theology—is without the domain of science. Auguste Comte finds the same opposition between theology and science, most bluntly expressed by him in his famous law of the three states: "In studying," he says, "the total development of the human intellect in its different spheres of activity, from its first simple endeavour up to our time, I think I have discovered a great fundamental law, to which it is subjected by an invariable necessity, and which appears to me solidly established, both upon rational proofs furnished by a knowledge of our organisation, and upon historical verifications resulting from an attentive examination of the past. This law is, that each of our principal conceptions, each branch of our knowledge, passes successively

<sup>2</sup> First Principles, chaps. i. ii. and v.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> History of Philosophy, vol. i., Prolegomena, chaps. i. and ii.

through three different states; the theological state, or the fictitious; the metaphysical state, or the abstract; the scientific state, or positive." Similar illustrations might be given from other philosophical writers, to say nothing of a large host of popularisers.

In face of this contention, it is important to ask, What constitutes a science? It is true that many diverse replies have been given from the days of Cicero, when scientia was any form of knowledge, until the present time; nevertheless, there is a commonly acknowledged signification to-day, and hence the critical question is, What is regarded to-day as constituting knowledge science? Mr. Lewes very justly says that "the office of science" may be defined "as the systematisation of our knowledge of the order of phenomena considered as phenomena; it co-ordinates common knowledge; it explains the order of phenomena by bringing them under their respective laws of coexistence and succession, classing particular facts under general conceptions." Science, that is to say, results from the application of a distinctive method of classification and inference. But is not Christianity—to take the apparently least scientific section of theology-amongst "the order of phenomena," and are not its facts a section of common knowledge, because if so, may not "our knowledge of the order" of Christian phenomena be systematised, may not "our common knowledge" be "co-ordinated"? It is only an unscientific bias of the scientific which regards physical phenomena as exclusively affording data for science. Very rightly, too, Mr. Lewes added that "each distinct science embraces a distinct portion of knowledge: mathematics treats of magnitude, and disregards all other relations; physics and chemistry concern themselves with the changes of inorganic bodies, leaving all vital relations to biology; sociology concerns itself with the relations of human beings among each other, and with their relations to human beings in the past and in the future"; and, he might have added to the enumeration, theology is occupied with the investigation of the facts of religion and their relations, and with this class of facts alone. "The peculiarities of science are these," says

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Philosophie Positive, vol. i. p. 8.

Professor Bain, another recognised exponent of the theory of science: "first, it employs special means and appliances to render knowledge true" (in other words, science desires, we may say, to deal with facts); "secondly, knowledge, in the form of science, is made as general as possible" (from facts science strives to reach laws); "thirdly, a science embraces a distinct department of the world, or groups together facts and generalities that are of a kindred sort" (science must have unity by limiting its view for scientific purposes to the same class of facts); "fourthly, a science has a certain order or arrangement of topics, suitable to its ends in gathering, verifying, and in communicating knowledge" (affiliation is of the essence of science). But if all this be so, does not theology deal with facts—does it not endeavour to pass from facts to laws—does it not consist of a genus of facts sufficiently well defined—and are not arrangement and affiliation peculiarly evident in its results? Certainly science is not mere learning, the literary accumulations of the scholar, nor are arts like navigation, engineering, metallurgy, agriculture, and we will add, like Sunday-school teaching or the cure of souls, to be named sciences, since they are simply the practical applications of science. Nevertheless, science is not defined by its subject-matter, but by its method. Everything is science which results from the blended use of observation, classification, inference, and arrangement. In every science, indeed, there are four factors, -data, ideas, unity, and order; there are facts or the results of observation, there are ideas or inferences legitimately drawn from the facts by the reason, there is unity or the limitation of view to related facts and inferences, and there is order, or the arrangement in a luminous and concatenated series of those facts and inferences. No accumulation of observations upon the ultimate elements of the universe could alone constitute the science of chemistry; no mass of details as to the sun and moon and stars could rightly be called the science of astronomy. To deserve the name of science the related facts must not only be described in words accurate and clear, but laws must be deduced from the facts so catalogued of more or less generality; in other words, the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Logic, Deduction, p. 23.

mind, which by its inherent faculties endeavours to mirror the external world and its laws, must supply connecting ideas derived from the observed data. As Kant said, "Begriffe ohne Anschauungen sind leer, und Anschauungen ohne Begriffe sind blind," or, as we might permissibly translate, "ideas without facts are empty, and facts without ideas are blind." Not only so, but the facts and ideas must be arranged with a unity and in an order which is itself of considerable auxiliary force, sometimes being probative, but always suggestive. No mere orderly arrangement of related facts, however, amounts to a science. Historical facts arranged in chronological order are bare annals; they must be understood in their relations of cause and effect if they are to form historical science. What valid reason is there, therefore, for denying the name of science to theology, dealing as it does in orderly and rational manner with the Christian and other religions, their records, their beliefs, their practices? Seeing that a science consists of four factors,—data, generalisations, organic unity, and consecutive arrangement, how shall the name of science be withheld from theology? Theology is not a mere knowledge of facts, nor a knowledge of facts arranged in an orderly manner, nor a knowledge of a limited class of facts, nor is it only a series of rigorous inferences from the related facts; theology is all these combined. Like every science, theology is a compound of related facts or data or observations, related ideas or laws or generalisations, appropriate order or arrangement or concatenation. Having observed with scrupulous care the facts with which it is concerned, theology accurately describes them, marshals them, reasons from them, and presents the results arrived at in such a way as to exhibit the internal relations of those facts, one to another and each to all. Theology, as Schleiermacher contended, is a positive science, a science, that is to say, based on observed facts and logical inference; as much a positive science, let us add, as physiology. Human physiology, to take a branch of the whole for convenience, is an appropriate arrangement of the facts pertaining to the physical structure of man in a dynamical state, together with certain laws, or general propositions, inferrible by strict logical processes from those facts: Christian

theology, to speak of a part of the wider science, is an appropriate arrangement of the facts pertaining to that form of religion called Christianity, as well as of the general propositions or doctrines, inferrible by strict logical processes from those facts. That the general proposition is called a law in physiology and a doctrine in theology is simply a matter of custom; it is equally a matter of habit that theology should not be called a science. It is the method only which differentiates science from other knowledge; and any branch of knowledge, even though it deal with superhuman things, which proceeds according to that distinctive method, has a right to the name of science.1 And this position has been assented to by so great a physicist as Professor Huxley, who wrote in the first volume of the Nineteenth Century: "By science I understand all knowledge which rests upon evidence and reasoning of a like character to that which claims our assent to ordinary scientific propositions; and if any man is able to make good the assertion that his theology rests upon valid evidence and sound reasoning, then it appears to me that such theology must take its place as a part of science."

# § 9.

### IS THEOLOGY A PHILOSOPHY?

Theology, then, is a science, the science of religion; is it also a philosophy? Define philosophy, and as in the preceding section, a reply will be possible.

What, then, is philosophy? Alas! in the English language, as Professor Bowen has again reminded us,<sup>2</sup> philosophy may mean almost anything, apparently; for not only do we describe sciences like logic and psychology, which deal directly with

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Compare Percy Strutt, The Inductive Method of Christian Inquiry, 1887; Josiah Miller, Christianum Organum, or the Inductive Method in Scripture and Science, 1870; Martin von Nathusius, Das Wesen der Wissenschaft und ihre Anwendung auf die Religion, empirische Grundlegung für die theologische Methodologie, Leipsie 1885.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Modern Philosophy from Descartes to Schopenhauer and Hartmann, by Francis Bowen. New York and London 1877.

the human mind, as branches of philosophy, but it is customary to speak of a philosophy of medicine, of chemistry, of law, of history, of religion. Even physicists till very recently had no name for their pursuits but natural philosophy, the very thing which it is not. Occasionally we even read of a philosophy of gymnastics, of shipbuilding, and of cookery. It was not without some reason, therefore, that Hegel sarcastically remarked that if Socrates brought philosophy down from the clouds, the English had degraded her to the kitchen.

There are two methods of definition commonly adopted for so abstract a term. On the one hand, the word may be defined by enumerating its contents, and on the other hand by describing its essence. Employing the method of enumeration, philosophy is often said by English writers to consist of logic, the science of the laws of thought, and psychology, the science of mind in general. Even in such a statement definition by essence seems to rule, for it is because both logic and psychology deal with problems mental rather than physical that they are regarded as philosophical sciences. But these two branches of study have no exclusive right to be esteemed mental sciences. Ethics, the science of morals, should at least be added. Nor can the enumeration be closed with moral philosophy. There is a philosophy of art, to say nothing of a philosophy of religion, such branches of mental inquiry being actually prosecuted, and under these names. Whether such designations are correct or not will depend on the conception framed of philosophy. Thus, as usual in the last resort, definition by enumeration bases itself upon definition by the unfolding of essence.

What, then, is the essential element in the conception of philosophy? Replies are almost as numerous as writers. At least replies vary more or less with every philosophical system. Spinoza is no more at one with his master Descartes than with Lessing, his populariser. Hume differs from Kant, whom he inspired, whereas Kantian views aroused but did not satisfy Fichte and Schelling. Nevertheless, under the constant necessity for the limitation of language as knowledge increases, it is possible to show, with all the multiplicity of replies, a growing unanimity and precision. A brief survey

of the history of this important word will enable the reader to see what truth there is in this averment, and at the same time to infer for himself the different views, which have been held by varying schools of thought, upon the relations of theology and philosophy.

Puthagoras, according to Cicero, who derived his information from Heraclides Ponticus, a scholar both of Plato and Aristotle, was the first to call himself a philosopher. story has been retold by Sir William Hamilton. "Pythagoras, once upon a time" (says the Roman orator), "having come to Phlius, a city of Peloponnesus, displayed in a conversation which he had with Leon, who then governed that city, a range of knowledge so extensive that the prince, admiring his eloquence and ability, inquired to what art he had principally devoted himself. Pythagoras answered, that he professed no art, and was simply a philosopher. Leon, struck by the novelty of the name, again inquired who were the philosophers. and in what they differed from other men. Pythagoras replied, that human life seemed to resemble the great fair, held on occasion of those solemn games which all Greece met to celebrate. For some, exercised in athletic contests, resorted thither in quest of glory and the crown of victory; while a greater number flocked to them in order to buy and sell, attracted by the love of gain. There were a few, however, and they were those distinguished by their liberality and intelligence,-who came from no motive of glory or of gain, but simply to look about them, and to take note of what was done, and in what manner. So, likewise, continued Pythagoras, we men all make our entrance into this life on our departure from another. Some are here occupied in the pursuit of honours, others in the search of riches; a few there are who, indifferent to all else, devote themselves to an inquiry into the nature of things. These, then, are they whom I call students of wisdom, for such is meant by philosopher." 1 The anecdote rests on slender authority. But if Cicero is probably wrong in ascribing the origination of the word to Pythagoras, Sir William Hamilton is probably right in ascribing that origin to Socrates. Be that as it may, on its first employment philosophy

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Lectures on Metaphysics, vol. i. p. 46.

bore a much wider meaning than it does to-day; the philosopher was the lover of wisdom, and philosophy was the wisdom he loved. The word had already become a technical term among the disciples of Socrates, being used, as it is desirable to notice, in a double sense. According to a narrower meaning, philosophy was synonymous with what we should call metaphysics, or ontology, the science of being as such, not of any department of existence. In a wider usage, philosophy was equivalent to what is now called science, systematised knowledge. instances of the narrower use, Plato defines those as philosophers, in the Republic, "who set their affections on that which in each case really exists" (τοὺς αὐτὸ ἄρα ἔκαστον τὸ ον ἀσπαζομένους φιλοσόφους κλητέον); and Aristotle defines his first philosophy ( $\Pi \rho \dot{\omega} \tau \eta \phi \iota \lambda o \sigma o \phi \iota a$ ) as the knowledge of that which really is  $(\tau \hat{o} \ \hat{o} \nu \ \hat{\eta} \ \hat{o} \nu)$ . As examples of the wider significance, let the following instances suffice. Plato speaks, in the Theatetus, "of geometry or any other philosophy" (mep) γεωμετρίαν ή τινα ἄλλην φιλοσοφίαν), thus classing philosophy with mathematics; and Aristotle states, in his Metaphysics. that philosophy in the wider sense is science in general, including mathematics, physics, ethics, and poetics. The need of specialisation having thus early asserted itself, it reappeared again and again; "wisdom," "knowledge," "science," might do for the larger use, but "philosophy" was too useful a word, in the growth and subdivision of intellectual pursuits, not to restrict it to denote new studies not readily expressed. Already in the two great philosophical schools which subsequently divided Greek civilisation, a narrower definition was advocated. Thus, according to Plutarch, the Stoics regarded "wisdom" (σοφία) as the knowledge of human things, and φιλοσοφία as the striving after virtue, making philosophy synonymous with ethics. Epicurus equally made philosophy synonymous with moral science, although he defined morality according to his characteristic mode of thought. Such were the several views of the ancient world, and they were repeated more or less by heathen writers and Christian until the dawn of the modern era. Throughout there is a perceptible tendency to confine philosophy, not to knowledge in general, nor to knowledge of great practical bearing (which is wisdom), nor

to knowledge made accurate and orderly (which is science), but to knowledge which originates in the mind, which is inward not outward, the product of reflection not observation; and this tendency, in the specialisation of names demanded by specialisation of inquiry, becomes yet more evident in the modern era.

Advancing to modern times, there have been many writers who have employed the word philosophy where science would have done equally well, converting into a synonym a word which has a very distinct value of its own. Thus Hobbes regarded philosophy as "the science of effects by their causes"; Wolff described philosophical knowledge as "the knowledge of those things which are or which become, and which enables us to understand why they are and become"; to Leibnitz philosophy was "the science of sufficient reasons," and to Condillac "the science of things sensible and abstract." Other writers, amongst whom Sir William Hamilton is prominent, have regarded philosophy and psychology as convertible There is an important element of truth in this view, which has been adopted and expanded by a third class, who, remarking the peculiar feature of psychology, namely, its concern with consciousness and not with the external world, have so enlarged this introspective distinction that they have arrived at the view that philosophy is not the science of external nature, but the science of nature as itself systematised by the conscious mind,—" the science of science," as Fichte said; "the science of principles," as Ueberweg expresses it; "completely unified knowledge," as the same idea is put by Spencer; "the systematisation of the conceptions furnished by theology and science," as G. H. Lewes phrased the underlying conception of Comte and the Positivists. Largely correct as is this view, correct, that is to say, as a summary of the unexpressed idea which governs our modern usage, it falls short in one serious particular. From a lack of precision it would be possible to regard philosophy, as has actually been done intentionally or unconsciously, as an encyclopædic view of all the sciences. This has certainly not been intended by the advocates of this third view, and it is also contrary to usage. By the "science of science" has been meant that knowledge which the mind

by its own processes has deduced from the accumulated facts and inferences embodied in the various sciences. This exact view of philosophy has been well put by Kant: "Philosophy," said he, "is the system of all the branches of philosophical knowledge, that is, of all knowledge rationally cognised through concepts as such," a definition which, translated into plain English, means, that philosophy is all systematic knowledge afforded by the workings of the mind as apart from the external world. Philosophy, in short,—and the definition harmonises with the common and the technical employment of the word, —is the result of a purely mental process. All science, including philosophy, is the product of observation and experiment, physical science being the product of experiment and observation upon the world without us, philosophy being the product of experiment and observation upon the world within The physicist questions the universe and not his intellect, the philosopher questions his intellect and not the universe. In natural science reason works among things and their relations; in philosophy reason works among thoughts and their relations. The organ of science is both external and internal perception; the organ of philosophy is introspection alone. This seems to be the idea in our minds when we use the words philosophy, philosopher, philosophical. A philosopher is a thinker as such. Philosophy is the product of thought proper. Philosophical is that which displays thought rather than research.

According to this definition every science has its philosophy. There is a justness in speaking of the philosophy of chemistry, or law, or history. Not that the facts concerning the elementary bodies which constitute the universe, or the facts concerning the legal arrangements of mankind, or the facts concerning the succession of human events, can be dignified by such a name as philosophy. The philosophical part of a science, as distinct from the positive part, is what has been supplied by the mind when it has occupied itself with those facts. By careful and brilliant introspection into the facts of chemistry as marshalled in the mind, the mind arrives at the several laws of combination by weight and by volume, and suggests the atomic theory; by careful introspection, not

unallied with that rapidity and saltation which we call genius, into the facts of history as classified in the mind, the mind formulates suggestive laws, such as those which have been popularised by Lessing in his tractate on the Education of the Race, which have been more exhaustively treated by Schlegel and Comte, and which have thrown new light upon those compends of the philosophy of history, the Book of Daniel and the Revelation of Saint John. Science consists of facts, ideas, and order, we have said; the ideas and the order belong to philosophy.

Attaching the name philosophy, therefore, to the product of the speculative reason, the relations between theology and philosophy become evident. Like the physical sciences, theology is a science of facts, a positive science, the science of the facts of religion; but like the physical sciences also, theology contains laws or inferences, order or method, as well as facts, and these ideas and this arrangement constitute the philosophical portion of theology. Not only so, but like the mental sciences, theology has sections, and large sections, which can only be investigated by prolonged attention to the personal religious consciousness, and here again a philosophical element shows itself. Whatever in theology results from a purely mental process, whether it be the high argument for the Being of God, or the profound analysis of the phases of salvation of which we are conscious, is philosophy. Not that theology can be studied by the philosophical method of introspection alone, as some have thought, for neither the facts of Christianity nor of any other great religion can be evolved from the individual consciousness. A philosophy of religion, using the word in its subjective sense, may be written, by the minute study of the data afforded by the religious faculty; but such a philosophy of religion would be only a small branch of theology, which deals with records and churches, creeds and practices, as well as the personal experience of the philosopher. Philosophy, then, is the product of the exercise of the reason pure and simple; theology is the product of the reason as exercised upon the facts of religion. Whatever in theology, whether data, or inference, or arrangement, results from the mind as such, pertains to philosophy. Here again a growing

usage is capable of explanation. It is quite in harmony with the above view that the study of the subjective facts of religion is called "the philosophy of religion," whilst the examination of both the objective and subjective facts of religion, and sometimes of the objective facts alone, is commonly called the science of religion.

Philosophy, therefore, is the handmaid of theology. For, first, it is the true office of philosophy to supply to theology all that reflection can teach concerning the religious nature, possibilities, and needs of man. As Ladd has well said: "If the theologian do not become a philosopher, if he do not diligently and intelligently cultivate the knowledge of mind, the knowledge of knowledge, the knowledge of moral philosophy, and the philosophy of religion, he will scarcely attain the place of a trustworthy theologian." Secondly, it is the true office of philosophy in its relations to theology to apprehend, classify, and infer, wherever possible, to put constantly in motion all the logical engines of simple apprehension, judgment, and reasoning; for, like all other sciences, theology must concede to reason that it shall shape all definitions, judge all evidence, and investigate all branches of logical laws. But theology is not philosophy under another garb. For, like every other science, theology is at liberty to offer for philosophical judgment any facts of its own whatever, quite irrespective of whether they have arisen from introspection or not. Philosophy, for example, may judge of religion, it must not prejudge it. As will be seen later, a large section of theology is purely philosophical.1

## § 10.

#### PLACE OF THEOLOGY IN THE CLASSIFICATION OF THE SCIENCES.

That theology, then, is a science, however repulsive the assertion to some thinkers, cannot be questioned, if the definition of a science be borne in mind. A science is an

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Compare Stuckenberg, Introduction to the Study of Philosophy, New York 1888, pp. 11-56; and G. T. Ladd, Introduction to Philosophy, 1891, pp. 1-54.

orderly examination and statement of all the facts relating to a given subject, and of the inferences those facts warrant; and if it is indubitable that there are large masses of facts pertaining to religion, as indubitably those facts may be investigated by the common scientific method of combined observation, classification, induction, and deduction, and the results attained may be expressed in clear and concatenated propositions. This being evident, the next task is to allot to theology its appropriate place in a complete view of the realms of accurate and ordered knowledge. Let some attempt be therefore made to classify the several sciences known to man, denoting at the same time the position to be assigned to theology. Nor is this task, difficult as it is because of the vast extent of ascertained knowledge, a mere sport for the curious. Such a classification is a question of the most practical bearing,—for two reasons, the first economical, and the second educational. On the one hand, the details of human knowledge have become so vast as to demand some logical method and arrangement for their due grasp and remembrance, seeing that it is impossible for the intellect to become a sort of encyclopædia of knowledge alphabetically arranged. On the other hand, there is a true order of study, necessarily missed if a logical arrangement of knowledge be unattained, an order which when observed conducts by the straightest road to proficiency. "There never was in truth more need of a right classification than at the present moment; as mere mental and social phenomena the masses of human knowledge have become too vast and complex to be advantageously treated without some method and arrangement, whilst as intellectual pursuits they are so logically connected and interwoven that no one of them can be intelligently cultivated without regard to the rest." 1 In prosecuting this next task, an outline and criticism of some of the leading classifications proposed by others may help, premising, however, that

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Shields, The Order of the Sciences, an Essay on the Philosophical Classification and Organisation of Human Knowledge, New York 1882. The whole book will repay careful study, as will the chapter on the "Organisation of the Sciences," in the first volume of Fiske's Outlines of Cosmic Philosophy, and the first Appendix in Bain's Logic, part i., "Deduction." Two scholarly articles by Dr. Flint, in the Presbyterian Review for 1886, will also be consulted with advantage.

a suitable arrangement of the sciences must obey the great logical laws of division; it must be governed by some principle, it must be governed by a single principle, there must be no cross divisions, and the division must be exhaustive.

Beginning with an example which is now of little more than historical value, it is interesting to remember that the great organising mind of Aristotle, in his Metaphysics, divided all "philosophy" (by which he meant scientific knowledge) into theoretical, practical, and poetical. By theoretical he meant the scientific knowledge of existing things; by practical, that which related to action or conduct; by poetical, the artistic, that which is concerned with the shaping of material. leading divisions were again subdivided by him and his followers. Poetical philosophy was scarcely touched. Practical philosophy was divided into ethics, politics, economics, rhetoric, and generalship. Theoretical philosophy he divided into physics or the study of nature, mathematics or the study of number, and theology (also called first philosophy and metaphysics), which treated of form or end, matter or substance, causes, in short, culminating in theology proper or the knowledge of God. Logic was apparently included in theology. Suggestive as is the exposition, there is little severity in saying that it is antiquated, that its divisions are manifestly cross, and, as tested by present knowledge, incomplete. However, one great virtue remains; the scientific mind of Aristotle recognised, at any rate, that any scientific classification must result from an examination of the actual relations existing in nature between the subject-matters of the several sciences, not in any mere intellectual conception as to their relations which existed only in the mind. In this clear perception of his he gave us one feature of a permanent classification, that it must follow the order of nature. However, the time had not yet come for the co-ordination of the sciences. Indeed, such a co-ordination belongs to an advanced period of the development of knowledge. As has been acutely said: "Each of the sciences must at least have found a name and place in human estimation, in order that all the classifiable objects may be fully before us; and even then it would be the height of presumption and

conceit to imagine that by one stroke of genius they could be marshalled into perfect order. Not only must we begin with an unprejudiced survey of the whole existing mass of scientific knowledge, but we must patiently examine the classifications of our predecessors, carefully weigh their merits and defects, cull out the sound principles which have survived their failures, and combine them with any we have to contribute, and then be content to regard our favourite scheme as still but tentative and approximate,—in short, we must pursue the same modest experimental method by which we arrive at all scientific truth." <sup>1</sup>

Passing from the old to the birth of the new era, BACON gave the following arrangement in his Advancement of Learning, adopted, be it noted, by D'Alembert in the famous French Encyclopædia. His principle of division was the three great modes of intellectual apprehension-memory, reason, and imagination. Hence he portioned knowledge into history, philosophy, and poetry; history, the product of memory as he thought, dealing with individual things; philosophy, the product of reason, comparing, classifying, and elaborating these materials; poetry, the product of imagination, the department of fiction, fable, or creativeness, as opposed to the literal rendering of things in history and philosophy. History he then subdivided into natural history, or the collective matters of fact concerning the universe, laid out under celestial bodies, meteors, the earth, etc., and civil history, distributed into ecclesiastical, literary, and political. Philosophy he regarded as referring to God, to nature, and to man; knowledge of God giving us theology, knowledge of nature supplying mathematics, natural philosophy, and metaphysics; whilst knowledge of man afforded, in his view, the doctrine of man in general, the doctrine of the human body, and the doctrine of the human mind. This Baconian arrangement is also of little more than historical value, as a system at any rate being obsolete. Every law of logical division is broken. If there is one principle of division in the main sections, there are several principles in the subsections; some of the divisions are cross; naturally enough also, remembering the date of the classifica-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Shields, The True Order of the Sciences, New York 1882.

tion, there are conspicuous omissions, as judged by present knowledge; nay, the psychology which suggested the division is now discredited; and yet again sciences and arts are confused together under the same general titles, metaphysics appearing side by side with practical astronomy, and applied mechanics with civil history; while, most disastrously of all, Bacon is seen to forsake an order based on an examination of the relations between the sciences themselves for an order based on the constitution of the viewing mind, an instructive instance of the fascination of the subjective method.

The scheme of subjects devised by Coleridge and adopted by the editors of the Encyclopædia Metropolitana (the publication of which commenced in 1815) deserves mention. There are four divisions in the work. The first division includes pure sciences, again divided into formal—grammar, logic, rhetoric, mathematics, metaphysics; and real—laws, morals, and theology. The second division is the mixed sciences—mechanics, hydrostatics, pneumatics, optics, astronomy. The third division is the applied sciences, subdivided into experimental philosophy, magnetism, electricity, heat, light, chemistry, acoustics, meteorology, geodesy, fine arts, useful arts, natural history. The fourth division is a miscellaneous one, containing history, geography, lexicography, and nondescript information. Here again another instance is seen of the viciousness of a subjective principle, for the arrangement stands or falls with the Kantian metaphysics; further, even this suspicious principle is not adhered to in the subordinate divisions. An encyclopædia might be arranged on so artificial a plan, but not a classification of the sciences of any scientific or educational value.

Unquestionably the greatest advance towards a classification of the sciences was made by Auguste Comte in his Cours de Philosophie Positive (1830–1842), this advance being due to his investigation into the relations between the sciences themselves rather than into the relations these sciences held in his own mind. Hegel has given us the most consistent and extravagant instance of the application of the subjective principle, an instance which has been not too

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Philosophie Positive, vol. i., deuxième leçon.

severely called "the boast of the metaphysician and the scandal of the scientist." Comte clave to the objective method of classification, diligently inquiring how the sciences themselves seemed to point the way to their arrangement. And Comte clave, too, more persistently than his predecessors to the distinction between scientific and non-scientific knowledge. "The most general division of our real knowledge," said he, "is into theoretical and practical." Knowledge is either theory or art, scientific or applied, in his view; and he rigidly restricts his attention to theoretical, scientific knowledge. This distinction seized, Comte proceeds to classify the sciences themselves. As he reminds us, the necessary questions concern the number and the disposition of the sciences, and the disposition not less than the number, seeing that, as Comte points out, if there are six leading sciences they might be arranged in no less than seven hundred and twenty different The method adopted is this, first, to define the sciences by their subject-matters, and then to arrange them in the order of their simplicity or generality. To use Comte's own words: "It is then with the study of the phenomena the most general or the most simple that we must commence, whilst advancing successively to phenomena which are more complicated or more particular." Accordingly the scheme suggested is as follows:—It consists of three divisions, viz. the abstract sciences, or the several branches of mathematics, the sciences of non-organised bodies, or astronomy, physics, and chemistry, and the sciences of organised bodies, or physiology and sociology. In this arrangement Comte claims that he has arranged the sciences in "the order of their natural concatenation, by following their mutual dependence, in such a way in fact that they may be expounded successively without being dragged into a vicious circle." As Comte maintains, mathematics stands first, because it must be studied first; neither organised nor inorganic bodies can be investigated without mathematics. Sociology demands a knowledge of physiology, physiology involves chemistry, chemistry begins with physics, physics implicate astronomy, and astronomy postulates mathematics. The progressing complexity from mathematics to sociology regulates his disposition of the

sciences. The sciences are classified by Comte according as they are more general (simple) or more particular (complex). "The succession," as he says, "is determined by a subordination necessary and invariable, founded, independently of all hypothesis, upon the simple but careful examination of the corresponding phenomena. The first branch of the classification considers the most general, the most simple, the most abstract phenomena, those the most remote from humanity; they influence all the branches, without being influenced by them. The phenomena considered by the last branch are, on the contrary, the most particular, the most complicated, the most concrete, and the most directly interesting for man; they depend, more or less, on all the preceding branches, without exercising on them any influence." Comte contended, further, that not only did this arrangement pass logically from the simpler phenomena to the more complex, but that it also conformed to the real development of the several sciences, mathematics having been first raised to the rank of a science, and sociology last: whilst this arrangement displayed, he thought, yet a third feature, that it marked exactly the relative perfection of the several sciences; physiology, for example, being less precise than chemistry, chemistry than physics, and physics than pure mathematics. Further, such an arrangement suggested, he said, "the true general plan of a scientific education entirely rational." It seems ungrateful to criticise this scheme of Comte's, for it is manifestly based on a correct principle, a principle, too, which had been deliberately adopted by Descartes and suggested by Aristotle. Nevertheless, there was inconsistency in the application of the principle, for, as the recent discoveries of spectrum analysis have shown, the study of physics, as it should follow mathematics, should precede astronomy. There were also manifest omissions in Comte's scheme, for he has no place for logic, psychology, and philology for example, to say nothing of theology, which, like psychology, he rejected on subjective grounds. The great opponent of bias in scientific research found the conditions of life too clinging to shake off all prejudice. No gap, in his view, divides man from the brute, no mental gap, no religious gap.

## Comte's scheme tabulated would be as follows:-

Classification (Hierarchy) of the Sciences.

I. Mathematics.
II. Astronomy,
III. Physics,
IV. Chemistry,
V. Physiology,
VI. Social Physics,

Organic Sciences.

Thus, then, we have learnt that a classification of the sciences should cleave to scientific as distinct from nonscientific knowledge, should eschew any merely subjective principle of division, should find its principle of division in examining the relations actually existing between the sciences themselves, and should proceed from the more simple to the more complex phenomena, thus observing at once the order of the relative development of the sciences and the rational order of study. To illustrate these lessons let an additional classification of some intrinsic interest be noticed. Amongst his other philosophical pursuits, Mr. HERBERT SPENCER has given us a pamphlet on the classification of the sciences, containing an elaborate novel classification, as well as some pertinent criticisms of the scheme of Comte. distinguishes three orders of sciences,—the abstract, the abstract-concrete, and the concrete, "these three groups of sciences" being "respectively accounts of relations, accounts of properties, accounts of aggregates," and being not serial, as Comte described, but collateral. In place of Comte's linear series of ascending ranks, Mr. Spencer "would substitute three collateral groups of sciences, one distinguishable from another according to the degree of their logical abstractness, the abstract sciences, the abstract-concrete sciences, and the concrete sciences; the first to include sciences of ideal relations, viewed apart from all facts, such as logic and mathematics; the second to include sciences of real relations, implicated in certain classes of facts, such as mechanics, physics, and chemistry; and the third to include sciences of aggregated facts, involving both ideal and real relations, such as astronomy, geology, and biology. These groups, though not to be put in a serial order, are further defined as instrumental

with respect to one another, the first with respect to the second and third, and the second with respect to the third only, while they furnish material to one another in inverse order, the third to the second, and the second and third to the first." According to Mr. Spencer, science consists either of that which treats of the forms in which phenomena are known to us, abstract science, divisible into logic and mathematics, or of that which treats of phenomena themselves. In the latter cases sciences deal with phenomena in their elements, or in their totalities; the former he calls abstract-concrete sciences, which are mechanics, physics, and chemistry, and the latter he calls concrete sciences, viz. astronomy, geology, biology, psychology, and sociology; with the several subdivisions we need not concern ourselves. Mr. Fiske has tabulated the scheme as follows:—

# Classification of the Sciences.

I. Abstract Sciences, dealing with relations, that are	qualitative; Logic. quantitative; Mathematics.
II. Abstract Concrete Sciences, dealing with properties, that are manifested	in movements of masses; . Molar Physics. in movements of molecules, and in aggregations of molecules that are homogeneous; Molecular Physics.
gates (with their	in the functions which adjust organic actions to specific relations in the environment; in the mutual relations of
	living organisms grouped   Sociology.

Criticising this scheme, the elegance and perspicuity of which have been much praised, the acute remark of Mr. J. S. Mill must be borne in mind, that it is an attempt to classify the sciences not according to their subject-matter or mutual relations, but according to an unimportant difference in the manner in which we come to know them, the vicious subjective method again intruding. Further, what can be

made of abstract-concrete sciences, seeing that we might as lucidly speak of true-false or animate-inanimate sciences? As in Comte's scheme also there are some manifest omissions, notably of the whole range of theological sciences.

The task, then, of classifying the sciences resolves itself into, first, obtaining a complete list of the leading branches of science, and secondly, so examining the relations of coordination or subordination actually existing amongst these several sciences as to become assured as to the existence or non-existence of some principle of division really inherent in these sciences. Now the sciences are nothing but the facts of the universe systematically investigated, and all the facts of the universe are to be found under the several heads which follow,-facts of quantity, facts of energy, facts of elements, facts of the heavenly bodies, facts of the earth, facts of life, facts of mind, facts of society, facts of religion. These, then, are the several branches of science, mathematics or the science of quantity, physics or the sciences of the natural energies, chemistry or the science of the natural elements, astronomy or the science of the heavenly bodies, geology or the science of the structure of the earth, biology or the science of life, mental science or the science of mind, sociology or the science of society, theology or the science of religion. These several divisions are exhaustive, and they The facts of number and space are not are not cross. identical with the facts of energy; atomic facts which are chemical cannot be confounded with atomic facts which are biological; if geology appears to be but a section of astronomy, there are manifest advantages in keeping the two fields of the heavens and the earth distinct; man cannot be satisfactorily treated under biology, for mind and life are not identical; nor can theology be classed as a section of sociology, seeing that religion introduces a new class of facts.

But the further question arises, Whether any relations can be discovered in these several sciences which may enable us to arrange them under one principle of division? Now there is a principle of order manifestly governing these various sciences. As Comte so suggestively showed, some of these sciences are much more complex than others, this complexity revealing itself, first, in the compulsory order of study, secondly, in the relative progress made in each science, and thirdly, he might have added, in the actual order of creative succession. To illustrate the first point, no man can study physics without some knowledge of mathematics; the chemist must have formed the prior acquaintance of the sciences both of number and energy; astronomy demands a familiarity with the laws of number, those of energy, and those of chemical combination; biology is more complex than any of the preceding, requiring a constant acquaintance with the data of physics and chemistry; and the problems of anthropology are still more intricate, necessitating frequent appeal to the problems of life, of the cosmos, and of the molecular forces: if man is a difficult study, is not man in society more difficult? Whereas the science of religion presupposes and crowns all the other branches of inquiry, finding data for judgment in them all, whilst supplying abundant new data. Here, then, we have touched a natural interrelation. laws of mathematics are the simplest in this sense that they may be investigated apart from all other sciences; the laws of physics are less simple than those of mathematics, but more simple than those of chemistry, seeing that the facts of number are implied in the facts of energy, whereas the facts of the combination of chemical force are, as far as we know, not essential to a knowledge of the laws of energy; similarly astronomy is less simple than chemistry, seeing that chemistry may be studied quite apart from astronomy, whereas the converse does not hold; and to pass over the intermediate sciences, and to come to the most complex branch of all, the entire solution of the problems of theology, draws upon the conclusions of the sciences of society, of man, of the terrestrial and celestial phenomena, of energy, and even of quantity. Each preceding science can be carried to its full completion without trenching on theological ground, whereas theology cannot be perfected without utilising conclusions derived from the revelations of God in inanimate and animate nature, in man, whether regarded alone or in the aggregate, and even in the simplest and most general of all sciences, the sciences of number and space. Under the second point, the relative progress in the study of the sciences, Comte has accumulated many facts. And as to the third point, to the theologian, indeed, there is even a succession in time in these several main branches of science. mathematics the nearest approach is made to laws which precede, yet condition all creation; in the sciences of energy the earliest laws impressed upon creation, as we know it, are seen,—the laws of chemical combination seeming also to be interwoven in the structure of the present universe; further, mathematics, physical and chemical laws, are presupposed in the structure of the stellar systems; yet again, the solar system, and our earth, appear to have been preceded in time by the stellar systems, as well as by the laws of all kinds they presuppose; certainly man is the last phase of created life known to us; social doctrines imply the prior existence of man; and finally, theological doctrines, the prior existence of man in society. The universe of to-day is a great divine synthesis, the combined result of innumerable collateral laws. these laws themselves being by no means equally simple, but being themselves syntheses of more elementary laws; and if the universe is to be understood, it is as necessary that the mutual influence of laws be investigated as the characteristics of the laws themselves. Hence analysis must extend its researches into the natural order, as well as into the natural facts. Indeed, the theologian does not hesitate to say that the study of the several branches of science is the study of the Divine ideas and the Divine nature which have been objectified for human examination.

Bearing in mind, therefore, the necessary distinction between the theory and application of science, between sciences like mathematics and geology, and arts like navigation and mining which are based thereon, the classification of the sciences may be tabulated in a series of growing complexity somewhat as follows:—

I. Mathematics, or the sciences of quantity, subdivided into—

(1) Science of number { Numbers specified—Arithmetic. },, symbolised—Algebra.

<sup>(2) ,,</sup> space— Geometry.

- II. Physics, or the sciences of the natural energies, subdivided into-
  - (1) Science of weight.
  - (2)sound.
  - light. (3)
  - (4) heat. (5) magnetism.
  - electricity. (6)
- correlation and persistence of energies. (7)
- III. Chemistry, or the science of the elements and their compounds.
- IV. Astronomy, or the sciences of the heavenly bodies, subdivided into-(2) Planetary astronomy. (1) Sidereal astronomy.
  - V. Biology, or the science of living bodies.
- VI. Geology, or the science of the earth.
- VII. Pneumatology, or the sciences of mind.
  - (1) Psychology, or science of mind as such.
  - (2) Logic,
  - the true. the good. (3) Ethics,
  - (4) Æsthetics, the beautiful.
- language. (5) Philology, ,, VIII. Sociology, or the science of man in society.
  - IX. Theology, or the science of religion.

Such is the classification suggested by the present state of our knowledge. But there are indications of further simplifications. Chemistry may become a branch of physics, and geology a branch of astronomy, and the mental and social sciences, by further investigation, become united as branches of anthropology, or the science of man, leaving the classification of the sciences a classification under the great primary facts of number, energy, life, the world, man, and God.

Should this interrelation of the various sciences, which has rather been indicated than elaborately reasoned, hold, an additional argument appears for the distinctions which should be heaped upon theology. Not alone because it treats of the eternal relations of man, or of those relations as divinely revealed, is theology the "scientia scientiarum," the "caput rerum," the "regina scientiarum"; theology also occupies the position of highest honour in the ranks of knowledge on scientific grounds, all other branches of human investigation being tributary thereto. Theology is the crown or topstone of the sciences. There is not a variety of human knowledge, as will be seen more clearly in the next section, which has not its "gold and frankincense and myrrh" to offer as oblations at the birth of theology.

## § 11.

#### DIVISION OF THE THEOLOGICAL SCIENCES.

Passing, then, from the classification of the several branches of science, which is of some, if subordinate, theological interest, as will be more clearly seen as we proceed, we come next to the classification of the several branches of theology, a subject of prime importance in a systematic Introduction. The division of the theological sciences adopted must govern our whole exposition, for weal or woe, the arrangement itself, if wise, having considerable auxiliary value, and if inappropriate beclouding our study and hindering sure advance. Happily the conclusions already reached by theologians have erected some boundaries which cannot be removed. There are minor reasons also why the division of theology should engage our careful attention. The mappingout of a science affords a very direct clue to the fundamental positions of the expositor, and therefore a criticism of the divisions advocated by prominent thinkers will make it possible for us to gain once for all a tolerable view of the contributions they have made to the systematisation of our science. Besides, the discussion of the division of theology affords an excellent opportunity of becoming acquainted with theological nomenclature.

In the history of most sciences the practical interest has preceded the strictly scientific. In the order of time practical needs give birth to science, and science in turn expedites and enriches practice. So it has been in the history of Theological Introduction. It was the desire to provide handy guides to the theory and practice of the Christian pastorate which has mostly prompted the writing of Introductions to Theology, although in the nature of the case these introductions have become more and more scientific, that is to say, more accurate, more orderly, and more reduced to principles. This scientific interest has not lessened of late years, and the many Theological Encyclopædias which have been published have been deliberately addressed to the scientific problem of

due systematic arrangement, improvement in science being seen to be really the straightest course to improvement in practice. But there has been one limitation in the study of theological introduction since Schleiermacher, which has more or less cramped the study of theology, and it is well that this limitation should be explicitly recognised. Theology has been identified,—the remark applies to Germany rather than England, for England has scarcely awakened as yet to a scientific interest in systematic theology,—the science of religion has been too largely identified abroad with the science of the Christian religion. For Schleiermacher natural theology had no place; the doctrine of God and of His relations to humanity which was accessible to the natural man, had nothing to do with the doctrine of God and His relations based on the experimental knowledge of the regenerate man. Theology, as the science of Christian experience, had no dealings with theology as the science of religion not distinctly Christian. And this antagonism has not yet been eliminated from German and germane Introductions to Theology. Nor has this fault of system been innocuous; the science of religion has distinctly suffered from its identification with the science of Christian religion. The Bible itself, the fons et judex of Christianity, often takes for granted and appeals to the truth of natural religion, and Christian theology should be as wide as the Bible. For the Christian advocate to destroy the common ground which he has in the religious aspect of nature and of man is to harm his own cause; for, supposing the non-recognition of natural theology to be simply an error of system, error in science is certain sooner or later to become error in practice. The question of the systematic arrangement of theology will be advisably entered upon, therefore, after a brief historical survey of the systematic arrangements of others.

A very good instance of those introductions in which the practical interest as such predominated is seen in the *Encyclopædia Theologica* of Clarisse, already mentioned with approval. Clarisse divided theological introduction into two parts,—general and special. In the general part the mental endowments and culture requisite for the erudite preacher were treated. The special part was again subdivided into two

sections, the former of which dealt with the studies which were preparatory to theology, such as philology, history, philosophy; and the latter of which, the posterior section, treated of the several branches of theology itself. In the exposition of these branches he did not seriously differ from the fourfold division to be presently mentioned, and his full plan need not be transcribed. From so rapid a sketch, however, it will be seen how much more than a scientific introduction to theology the book professed to be. Of course that small part of its practical value remains that is not a consequence of its scientific attitude.

Advancing to the days of the systematisations inaugurated by Schleiermacher, sometimes a dual, sometimes a triple, and sometimes and most frequently a quadruple division has been suggested. Schleiermacher's own division was threefold. Theology, scientifically regarded, consisted of three branches, he said, philosophical (or theoretical, as we should say), historical, and practical. Philosophical theology includes apologetical theology, or the theory of the defence of Christianity, and polemical theology, or the theory of Christianity as an aggressive system of truth. Historical theology includes, he thought, first, exegetics, or the knowledge of primitive Christianity to be gained from its records; secondly, Church history, or the knowledge of the earthly career of Christianity; thirdly, the knowledge of the present condition of Christianity, primarily as to doctrine or dogmatic theology, secondarily as to social condition and extension (ecclesiastical statistics). Practical theology includes Church service,—such as the theory of liturgy, worship, preaching and pastoral care,—and Church government. Our immediate concern is with the main division of theology, which Schleiermacher describes as threefold. But in this triple arrangement certain anomalies appear; for example, why should apologetical theology be designated philosophical, whilst dogmatic theology is regarded as a branch of historical theology? Surely the defence of Christian truth must depend upon its dogmatic statement, and its doctrinal statement ought to be more than a phase in the history of Christianity. History is the record of ceaseless change, and it is a curious view of Christian

doctrine which regards it in its least disputed forms as stable to-day and uncertain to-morrow, history as such being indifferent to truth and error, and its purpose being fulfilled if it records all phases of belief actually existent. The attitude of the doctrinal theologian is very different to the attitude of the historian; the latter is satisfied to chronicle what phases of opinion have been; the former desires to state what phases of opinion are true. Again, exegesis occupies a very different standpoint to the historical; the investigator of Scripture is not content to describe what views of the Bible are held at present or have been held in the past, his purpose is to decide what views of the meaning of the Bible are correct; the historical view of Scripture catalogues interpretations, the exegetical view criticises them. The triple arrangement of Schleiermacher is a consequence of his fundamental conception, according to which Christian theology is simply a theology for professed Christians, a science of religion not true for all who reason, but only true for a class. Theology was to him not the science of Christian truth, but the science of Christian experience. As such, the experience of Christian life might be treated as a weapon of defence or of attack, forming theoretical theology; or it might be treated historically, and unfold what the first Christians believed, what any subsequent Christians believed, and what Christians believe at present; or it might be treated practically, utilising Christian experience for public worship or private guidance. But there is a fundamental weakness in the view of the Christian believer who, instead of giving a reason for the faith which is in him, simply points to the fact that he has a faith. However, the method of Schleiermacher's Kurze Darstellung has had many exponents, prominent amongst whom have been Rosencranz, Kienlen, Noack, and Von Hofmann, and the latest of whom is Rothe in his posthumous work on Theological Encyclopædia.

Immediately the false positions of Biblical and dogmatic science are recognised in the scheme of Schleiermacher, the triple division becomes fourfold. And the fourfold division has had by far the largest number of adherents. Indeed, so long as theology and Christian theology are identified, it seems

impregnable as regards the number of divisions, although opinions may still differ as to the relative positions of the four constituent sciences. HAGENBACH has adopted this fourfold division, and both for its essential value and for its shortcomings his arrangement may be usefully sketched. According to his view, theology is divided into exegetical, historical, systematical, and practical. Exegetical theology is a knowledge of the sacred books of Christianity, presuming a knowledge, first, of their languages; secondly, of their criticism; thirdly, of their history; and fourthly, of their interpretation. Historical theology includes the history given in the Old and New Testaments, the theology of the Bible (that is to say, its various forms of doctrine), the history of the Christian Church, patristics or the study of the writings of the Fathers of the Church, symbolics or the study of the creeds, the archæology of the Christian Churches, and their statistics. Under systematic theology Hagenbach included dogmatics, or the statement of Christian truth; apologetics, or Christian truth defended; polemics, or Christian truth utilised for attack; and ethics, or the science of Christian morals. Practical theology Hagenbach considered as embracing catechetics, or the theory of Christian education; liturgics, or the theory of worship; homiletics, or the theory of preaching; to this branch the theories of pastoral care and Church government being added. One manifest advance is made in such a fourfold arrangement. There is a scientific progress from the simpler to the more complex science. Exegetical theology is rightly made the basis of the remaining three; systematic theology demands a scientific knowledge both of the Bible and the history of the Church; and no theory of the pastoral life can be drawn without postulating again and again a knowledge of the conclusions of exegetical, historical, and systematic theology. The principal faults, as a classification of Christian theology, appear in the elaboration of the scheme and in nomenclature. Thus, taking the latter first, Biblical theology is a more appropriate name than exegetical, seeing that there may be a science of the exegesis of any other book beside the Bible; again, pastoral theology is preferable to practical theology, inasmuch as the science meant is that of the pastoral

office, and not of any general practice of theology, or of what would be conveyed by the term applied theology; even the name historical theology is not so precise as ecclesiastical theology. Further, in the elaboration of the scheme it is an error to put the science of the Bible in one division, and then to place Biblical history and Biblical theology, parts of the science of the Bible, under another division, historical theology. These shortcomings in elaboration have been clearly recognised by RAEBIGER, whose division runs as follows. There are four parts of theology in his view, -exegetical, historical, systematic, and practical, for these names of Hagenbach's he retains. Exegetical theology he regards as consisting in order, of Biblical hermeneutics or the theory of Biblical interpretation, Biblical philology, Biblical criticism, Biblical antiquities, Biblical history, Biblical introduction, Biblical exegesis, Biblical theology. Then Räbiger supposes historical theology to be composed of Church history in general, and of the several specific disciplines (viz. the history of missions, of the idea of the Church, of worship, of cultus, of doctrines, of creeds, of Fathers, of statistics). Next Räbiger distributes systematic theology into dogmatics and ethics, and practical theology into the doctrine of organisation (politics, law), the doctrine of worship (liturgics, homiletics, catechetics, pastoral care), the doctrine of Church culture (missions, social life), and the doctrine of Church instruction (symbolology, or the science of creeds, and pædeutics, or the science of education). Räbiger points out, this fourfold division has been adopted either instinctively or intelligently, amongst other writers, by J. Gerhard, A. Calov, A. H. Francke, Alsted, Ellies du Pin, Pfaff, Buddeus, Mosheim, Planck, Nösselt, Thym, Kleuker, Stäudlin, Clarisse, Hagenbach, Harless, L. Lange, S. Erhardt, and Oberthur; he might have added the names of J. E. C. Schmidt, Franke, Karg, and Niemeyer; and since Räbiger wrote, the same quadruple division has been adopted by Zöckler and his coadjutors in their valuable Handbook of the Theological Sciences, and by Kuyper, and by Schaff.

Further, the appropriateness of this fourfold division, so long as attention is confined to Christian theology, is indirectly substantiated by the fact that dual divisions can only be made

by making two or three of the usual divisions into subdivisions under a single head. Thus Goder divides theology into two main parts - speculative and practical, meaning by the former the knowledge of salvation, and by the latter the art of saving men; but he is only able to do this by giving the generic name of speculative theology—with scant wisdom to the three classes of exegetical, systematic, and historical theology. The same virtual substantiation of the fourfold division is seen in the dual divisions of Nösselt, Niemeyer. and Danz, each of whom virtually divides theology into a theoretical part, consisting of Biblical, historical, and doctrinal theology, and a practical part. Heinrici, again, makes a dual division by regarding Biblical and ecclesiastical theology as subdivisions of Historical Theology, and systematic and practical theology as subdivisions of Normative Theology. For the dual division of Kihn, see page 37.

After this running criticism of previous classifications, it is possible to lay down our own division.

Before dealing with the order of the several theological sciences, let us settle the number of the summa genera of theology. To do this, it is necessary to recur to first principles. A fourfold division of theology has practically obtained everywhere, because theology has been identified with Christian theology; and faith, the organ of theological knowledge, has been identified with Christian faith. But religion, which is fundamentally perception of a spiritual or supernal world, is found outside of Christianity, and may be scientifically studied wherever found; and faith, which is simply our confidence in our spiritual perceptions, is found also outside of Christianity, and may also be scientifically studied.

Let the facts be carefully considered. To repeat the position everywhere taken up in this book, there are three worlds of which we have immediate knowledge—the outer world, and the inner world, and the upper world. By sense perception we know the external world; by self perception we know the internal world; by spiritual perception we know the supernal world. So we say for convenience, although it is the same spirit or soul or mind which has

self perception, and sense perception, and spiritual perception. The one mind perceives all three worlds.

Now, answering to these three worlds are three varieties of faith, which for convenience we may call sense-faith, and self-faith, and spirit-faith, although really the act is the same in each case; it is only the subject-matter of the act which varies. By sense-faith is meant our confidence in our perceptions of the external world. When I make so simple a statement as that "this ink is black," my ultimate authority is really my faith in my perception. By self-faith is meant our confidence in our perceptions of the internal world; and really we can make no assertion concerning ourselves, our pleasures, our pains, our internal perceptions of any kind, without an act of faith, without taking on trust, and putting confidence in, our perceptions of the internal world. Similarly, spirit-faith is our confidence in our spiritual perceptions.

Here the interesting fact emerges of the primacy of faith. Faith precedes all proof, seeing that perceptive processes are necessarily prior to reasoning processes. If religion must precede theology, and if religion implies faith in our spiritual perceptions, exactly the same prerequisite exists in the psychological and physical kingdoms as well as in the theological. Consciousness must precede psychology, and the deliverances of consciousness must be accepted by faith. Sensation, again, must precede physical science, and all sensations must be accepted by faith.

Indeed, immediate knowledge is the basis of mediate knowledge in every sphere, and immediate knowledge can only be knowledge by the instrumentality of faith. There must be confidence in our perceptions of the external world—faith, before we can move a step towards any physical science. There must be confidence in our perceptions of the internal world—faith, before we can move a step towards any psychological science. Therefore it is scarcely to be wondered at that there must be confidence in our perceptions of the supernal world—faith, before we can move a step towards any theological science.

Theology, therefore, it might be said, being the science of religion, is also the science of faith. But theology is not the only science of faith. Every physical science is also a

science of faith, as is every psychological science. What is meant is that theology is the science of religious faith, spiritual faith. But if this view be received, it will straight-way appear that religious faith is used in a much wider sense than faith is used by the followers of Schleiermacher or Ritschl. Theology is regarded by such teachers as a Glaubenslehre, a science of faith, where by faith is meant Christian faith only. But Christian faith does not differ, qua faith, from religious faith, and religious faith does not differ, qua faith, from faith in the external and internal worlds. On the whole, that is to say, theology is better defined by its objective material—religion, or revelation, than by its subjective medium—faith.

Theology then being the science of religion in both the objective and subjective senses of the word, that is to say, theology being the science of what man knows of his supernal relations and of the subjective influence of that knowledge, as this book everywhere assumes, it is manifest that one branch of theology is what has been called Natural Theology. Man experiences religious feelings, intuitions and convictions of the supernal, in presence of the natural world; he obtains from the visible universe some knowledge as to supernal relations. The inferences of mathematics, physics, chemistry, astronomy, geology, biology, and sociology do not exhaust all that man learns from the present sphere of his being. There are "high instincts before which our mortal nature trembles like a guilty thing surprised," "truths which wake to perish never," suggestions of the reason, conclusions as to a supernal world framed by the stern methods of a resistless logic, and given in the intuitions of the mind. As Chaucer said, "nature" becomes the "vicar of the Almightie Lord" as we go forth under the open sky, and list to her teachings, or as the author of the Night Thoughts expressed it, "the course of nature is the art of God." Nothing is at present said as to the amount or the relative value of the knowledge man gains from nature of his supernal relations; attention is simply drawn to the fact of the existence of such knowledge. If it can be investigated and systematised, natural theology must be one branch of theology.

Again, some knowledge of the supernal relations of man, and of the subjective influence of such knowledge, can be gained from the study of the numerous religions of heathendom. Another source of religion (the formulation and orderly treatment of which is theology) is then the several religions outside the faith of Judaism and Christianity, themselves religions of a higher kind, and therefore a second branch of theology is what may be called *Ethnic Theology*, the science of the extra-Biblical religious systems. Again, be it added, nothing is said as yet as to the relative value of the knowledge man gains from the heathen faiths as to his supernal relations.

Yet again, knowledge of the supernal relations of man and of the subjective consequences of such knowledge, and knowledge of a very distinctive kind, is afforded by that combination of religious records called the Bible. This is a fact which calls for recognition in any division of theology. As a source or a record of religion, the Bible occupies a unique position amongst the sacred books of the race. The religious facts of the Bible cannot be confounded either with the religious data given in heathenism, or with those of the natural reason. Seeing that it is a cardinal principle of classification that different classes of facts shall not be massed together, it is necessary that the data of the Bible, as scientifically investigated, be placed in a distinct division, which may be not unsuitably called Biblical Theology.

And yet again, just as God has spoken to man in nature, in the ethnic religions, and in the Bible, the divine voice is also heard in the history of the Christian Church. Another series of facts than the Biblical, calling in turn for accurate and orderly investigation, presents itself, therefore, in the history of the Christian Church. There, under the divine guidance, the revelations of God pass through varying phases of assimilation, and hence another branch of theology is that to which the name of historical, or more accurately, *Ecclesiastical Theology* has been applied.

Thus far the various classes of relations in which man consciously stands to the supernal or spiritual world have been mentioned, viz. the relations to the supernal in nature, to the supernal in the various extra-Biblical religions of the world, to the supernal in the Bible, and to the supernal in the experience of the Church. But from the comparison of these another branch of theology arises, sometimes called systematic theology, although, seeing that all scientific theology is systematic, the name is not very appropriate; perhaps a slightly better name would be Comparative Theology. The aim of this comparative theology is twofold, first, to determine the relative value and authority of the several sources of human knowledge of the supernal (to which section of our science the name of fundamental theology might be applied); and secondly, in harmony with the results attained, to build up in a reasoned, complete, and systematic manner the various doctrines which express all that man knows of his supernal relations (for which section doctrinal theology would be an appropriate name).

Yet another branch remains. A distinct profession exists with the aim of disseminating the doctrines of theology. To the theory of theology in its most mature form, this professional class adds the adaptation of the theory to practice. And many besides this professional class are interested in the theory of religion as applied in practice. Now the various modes of practice, such as preaching, teaching, supervision, may be studied in a scientific manner, and hence arises that branch of our science to which the name of practical, or more accurately, *Pastoral Theology* has been applied.

Assuredly the scientific principle of division to be adopted in each section of science is the same as that which should be followed in the sciences generally; the several branches should so succeed each other that advance is made from the simpler to the more complex, a principle which has received sufficient elucidation and qualification in the preceding section. Now, seeing that pastoral theology implies the sciences, the practical application of which it studies, pastoral theology evidently comes last in order. Again, remembering that comparative theology cannot proceed a step without the existence of the sciences, the teachings of which it compares, comparative theology comes last but one. Again, examining the several sciences which

provide the data for the rational processes of comparative theology, it is evident that ecclesiastical theology, which shows us the assimilation by the Church of the revelations given in nature and in the Bible, must occupy a position subsequent to both Biblical and natural theology. Further, Biblical theology, or the study of the revelations given in Scripture, again and again assuming the knowledge to be derived from nature and heathenism, must follow both these branches, if a really progressive order of investigation be pursued. Lastly, natural theology is manifestly simpler than ethnic (that is to say, is capable of prior study).1

Theology, then, the science of religion objective and subjective, or, more at length, the science of what man knows of his supernal relations and of the influence of that knowledge upon him, may be classified as follows:—

Data for Comparative Theology,

Inductions of Comparative Theology,

of natural religion. II. Ethnic Theology, or the science of ethnic religion.

I. Natural Theology, or the science

III. Biblical Theology, or the science of Biblical religion.

IV. Ecclesiastical Theology, or the science of religion in the Christian Church.

V. Comparative Theology, or the science which compares the results of the preceding sciences, and constructs therefrom a system of theological truth.

Applications of Comparative Theology, VI. Pastoral Theology, or the science of the pastorate.

### § 12.

BRIEF SURVEY OF THE COURSE OF THEOLOGICAL SCIENCE.

Let another step be taken in our survey of theology generally. In the sequel each of the several branches of

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Dr. Flint's article on "Theology," in the 9th edition of the Encyclopedia Britannica, vol. xxiii., 1888, will be read with advantage in connection with the subject of this chapter.

theology tabulated in the last section will have its historical review; here a brief outline only of the general course of theology is given, very largely for its practical suggestiveness.

Christianity has been the great producer of theologies, and almost the only producer of theologies of all branches, natural, ethnic, Biblical, ecclesiastical, and pastoral. Nevertheless, nothing is clearer than that Christianity preceded its scientific study. Indeed, Christianity treated scientifically was neither the product of the Apostolic Age nor of the age immediately succeeding. The point is not unimportant. Facts are not science; data are not theories; and the Apostolic Age points the moral that Christian thought results from Christian life. Christian theology is a construction of the human intellect, having its origin in the necessity for unifying the truths and experiences presented by Christianity to the reason. Hence it is not surprising that in days like those a little later than the apostles, theology, as distinguished from religion, did not occupy the minds of many. Men must be Christians before they begin to think scientifically of Christianity. The life of man has many sides. He is a novice in the study of mankind who thinks that the only human interests are intellectual. The intellectual is neither the only nor the first concern. So far from being indispensable to a Christian life, theology is more its result than its cause. When the facts of Christianity are received with the spirit of a disciple, they proceed straightway to mould the character of the whole man; the will desires Christian activity, the emotional nature calls for Christian holiness. and the intellect craves Christian consistency. It is true that some knowledge of Christian things must precede the acceptance of the elementary facts of the Christian religion; but this rudimentary knowledge is not, nor is it desired to be, a complete investigation of Christian theology. are studied for the sake of salvation, not for their own sake. Undoubtedly men vary much in the preponderance of the several mental faculties, and some are more emotional, and some more active, and some more intellectual. A balanced mind is rare. Nevertheless, the first Christian interest even of the intellectually inclined is not with Christianity as

scientifically presented. Practice precedes theory; experience antedates reflection. Indeed, before the need is strongly felt for systematic knowledge, the renewed mind must have already passed beyond the initial phase of more or less strong emotional sensibility with which the new birth first manifests itself. Love to Christ, for example, is prior to any formulation of a doctrine of that love. For such reasons it should cause no surprise that the POST-APOSTOLIC AGE was not given to theology. The doctrinal statements received from the apostles expressed with sufficient precision the cardinal doctrines of Christianity, and in the intense realisation of the redemption which was in Christ Jesus, deep feeling precluding and superseding exact science, the thinkers of that time had, as far as we know,—certainly the records are scanty,—no desire to express in logical form, and with suitable limitations, the truths which stirred them so deeply. He who has the inward testimony of the Spirit to the truth of what he believes, and who accepts the statements of Scripture and of his fellowbelievers so long as they are not in contradiction to his inner testimony, may be a good Christian, though no theologian; and it is well to bear the fact in mind. Nevertheless, let no argument be drawn against theological study from the priority of the experimental stage. This inward testimony, although it predisposes others to listen to the accent of conviction it imparts, is purely of a personal nature; it fluctuates; it seems to be a part of divinely prearranged spiritual education that it should fluctuate; miracles only accompany the opening years of great movements; and if the Christian man would taste the deepest and most lasting joy of personal assurance and large usefulness, he must hold his treasures of truth with a firm intellectual grasp. Reason must elaborate, as well as will find inspiration in, the gifts of experience. First-love flags after a while if it have not the intelligence to support it. At anyrate such is the teaching of the early centuries. However profound and engrossing the novel experiences of the Apostolic and post-Apostolic Ages, before four centuries had passed, in the interests of self-culture, evangelisation, or defence, all the main sections of Christian theology known to us at present were being diligently prosecuted. Religion,

with all its wealth, had to call in the aid of precision, consistency, and order, if it would not only advance but hold its own.

Quite naturally the early Christians were soon compelled to busy themselves with defending their positions against assaults, the assaults of heathen and Jews. Even the second century has bequeathed to us apologies, as these defences were called, of various kinds; in fact it has bequeathed little else, and hence its common name—"the Age of the Apologists." Moreover, the occasional monographs written against individual or fleeting heresies soon began to partake more and more of scientific completeness and order. Before the second century closed, Justin Martyr had given the world his  $\Sigma \acute{\nu} \nu \tau a \gamma \mu a \kappa a \tau \grave{a} A \acute{\nu} \acute{\rho} \acute{\sigma} \epsilon \omega \nu$ , Ireneus had given his Contra Hareses, Hippolytus his  $\Phi \iota \lambda o \sigma o \phi \acute{\nu} \mu \epsilon \nu a$ , and Tertullian his De Prescriptionibus Hareticorum, each of which was sufficient to earn for its author the coveted title of Defender of the Faith.

But apologetics cannot long subsist without a reasoned system of doctrine. Indeed, the very best defence of Christianity is ever a careful and consistent statement of what Christianity is. Hence apologetical works were speedily followed by systematic. Origen was the father of systematic theology, and Alexandria its birthplace. Origen's great work,  $\Pi\epsilon\rho i$  ' $A\rho\chi\hat{\omega}\nu$ , met a great want, and had a large success. The book had many peculiarities of view; it showed many infirmities of arrangement; but, aiming as it did at a systematic presentation of all Christian truth, it straightway became a suggestive model, which was soon improved upon in detail by Rufinus, and Augustine, and Theodoret.

Doctrinal investigations again inevitably foster Biblical study. In very little more than a century after the appearance of the *De Principiis*, the principles of Biblical exegesis, exegesis itself, textual criticism, and the doctrine of the canon, were being painstakingly investigated. Works began, too, to appear upon applied or pastoral theology, and thus before the close of the fourth century all branches of theology had entered upon their long development, the history of the Church having been told by Eusebius, and works on natural

and ethnic theology having formed a necessary part of apologetical literature. In the writings of Augustine, for example, contributions are found to all branches of theological literature.

Thus early all the theological sciences had their birth. Their subsequent history, to be told more minutely hereafter, is a history of their decay or their flourishing according as they individually harmonised with or opposed the ruling spirit of each age, for that there is a spirit pervading and governing each age, however difficult to define in the present, is distinctly manifest in the past. All that it is necessary to do here is to call brief attention to these time-spirits.

The six centuries after the first are often called THE PATRISTIC AGE, or the Age of the Fathers; this larger period being subdivided into the post-Apostolic Age, the Age of the Apologists, and the Age of Polemics, the union of the Christian Church and Roman State marking the division between the two last. The name, "Age of Polemics," very ably marks the characteristic of the centuries from Constantine to the fall of the Roman Empire. As in the Age of the Apologists Christian theology was occupied with defending Christianity against the assaults of Judaism and heathenism, so in the subsequent age the great task was the maintenance of the fundamental Christian doctrines against all sorts of heresies. And the age has left to all time a splendid legacy in its formulations of the great doctrines of God and Christ and man. It was this polemical bent which governed the study of the several theological sciences from the days of Athanasius to the inroad of the barbarians.

Then followed THE SCHOLASTIC AGE. Some have given the name of the Scholastic Age to the period extending from the days of Anselm (who died in 1109) to the Reformation. Others have called the entire period from the Patristic Age to Luther by the name of the Scholastic Age, and with reason. The Patristic Age died away at about the close of the seventh century, and as the epoch of the great Fathers of the Church ended, the epoch of the great scholastics commenced. The Scholastic Age displayed three tolerably well-marked phases,—the period of inception and youth, from the eighth to the

eleventh century; the period of greatest strength and glory, from Anselm to Aquinas and Duns Scotus, the latter of whom died in 1308; and the subsequent period of decline and dissolution. The whole period was marked by one characteristic, the passion for systematising. As has been acutely said, the scholastics were not patres, generators of doctrine, but doctores, teachers and system-makers. Their chief instrument was the Aristotelian logic. The Apostolic Age, as we have seen, founded Christianity, introducing the life and teaching of Jesus as regenerative principles in human society; the Patristic Age, as we have also seen, by conflicts within and conflicts without the Church, crystallised Christianity into a series of doctrines; it was the task of the Scholastic Age to cast these doctrines into systems. It was at once the virtue and the vice of the time to be systematic. Scholasticism is the science of the Papist, credulous as to data, rigorous as to consequences. Let authority supply the premisses, and logic can supply the conclusions with the mathematical rigour of the syllogism. The whole theological investigations of the time were regulated by this love of system, with its axiom "the infallibility of authority." But there are two sources of truth, apprehension and comprehension, presentation of facts and intellectual assimilation of facts; and both must go hand in hand where the highest mental progress is desired. Scholastic Age did all it could with its data, but if a further advance was to be made, the authority of priest and father must receive a blow, and direct approach to the source of truth and life and light be again rendered possible for all.

The quickening which theology required came in the Reformation. The Reformation may be not unfitly likened to the Apostolic Age, not in originating power, but in the intuitional grasp of the great facts of the gospel. It was a revived spiritual experience, rather than a profounder intellectual insight, which almost simultaneously affected Luther and Zwingli, and which, when Rome opposed, brought about the gigantic breach in the Western Church. This breach was the inevitable consequence of the return to apostolical experience, another consequence equally inevitable being the return to disturbing controversy. The new Apostolic Age must be

followed by a new Age of the Apologists, and a new Age of Polemics, and in due course by a new Age of Systematisers. It was in the nature of things that the new Protestant communities, as well as the Romish Church, should be exercised painfully and long in the intellectual adjustment of the new facts. Scholasticism had no place for the new phase of Christian life which Luther had made European. But Luther and his sympathisers wrote and spoke their apologies, and the work spread, no more patent testimony being necessary to the diffusion of the Protestant principles than the polemics everywhere aroused. Thus the closing years of the sixteenth century were years of passionate religious controversy, as well as of peculiar religious sensitiveness. The spirit of the time gave a tremendous impetus to theological investigation, again governing the line of study for good and harm, and giving in the process a resurrection to Biblical and historical science.

When THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY broke, the bitterness of the gigantic struggle had passed, and the time for intellectual systematisation had come. Indeed, the seventeenth century may be called the Second Scholastic Age. It was the time for great systems. From the terrible combat of the Churches, there had emerged three types of doctrine,—the Tridentine, formulated by the Council of Trent; the Lutheran, formulated in the Liber Concordia; and the Calvinist, formulated in the several Reformed Confessions. Each distinctive type set itself to the labour of the systematic presentation of its views. Rome produced a series of great theologians, most prominent amongst whom were Cardinal Bellarmin and the Jesuit Pétau. In the Lutheran Churches flourished such systemmakers as Chemnitz, Gerhard, and Quenstedt. Nor were the Reformed Churches wanting in an identical fervour, as the works of Rivetus, Heidegger, Turrettin, Cocceius, Witsius, Usher, Pearson, Burnet, and Watson testify.

Once more, however, the age of system was followed by an age of disintegration. The Confessions did not contain all truth, and the systems did not adequately represent the Confessions. There followed the fierce attacks of Rationalism. Not without propriety, Mr. Mark Pattison suggested, in his well-known essay in the "Essays and Reviews," that THE

EIGHTEENTH CENTURY might be called the "Seculum Rationalisticum," for, as he said, "it was not merely that rationalism obtruded itself as a heresy, or obtained a footing of toleration within the Church, but the rationalising method possessed itself absolutely of the whole field of theology." Both at home and abroad, within the Churches and without, the so-called "light of nature" was constituted both the source and the test of all religious truth. One good thing, however, was done by the "rationalist century": if it submitted all theological science to the severe light of the reason, and originated everywhere destructive criticism, it gave new birth to a most important branch of religious science—that is to say, to natural theology. Generally speaking, however, the rationalising spirit biassed all the theology of the eighteenth century.

Happily the closing years of the eighteenth century saw a revival of religion. The Christian Churches made two replies to the assaults of rationalism; they set themselves to aggressive evangelisation, and they issued their defences from pulpit and press. They answered Tindal and Collins by Wesley and Whitfield. It was in the beginning of THE NINETEENTH CENTURY, be it remembered ever, that the great missionary societies were founded, that the Bible Society commenced its splendid work, and that so powerful an impetus was given to ministerial education by the founding of theological colleges. Nevertheless, this nineteenth century will scarcely be known as the evangelical century. All Christian lands have had their peculiar histories of work and worry, and most divisions of Christendom have had agitating controversies and volcanic movements of a national or sectarian kind, the consideration of which will be more appropriately considered under the history of the doctrinal theology of the century. But two characteristics of this century have left their mark upon the Church Universal. The nineteenth century has been the century of commerce and the century of natural science. Steam and the telegraph have brought the ends of the earth nearer. Thus the religions of heathendom have been brought more prominently before the eyes of men, whilst at the same time the insularity of individual divisions of the Church has been broken down. Thus recent years have been marked by a larger charity and a wider outlook, the spirit of the age especially resenting any seeming infringement of a humanitarian religion, and especially applauding any apparent universality of creed. The disclosures of travel and of researches into the religions of non-Christian nations, both almost new possessions of this age, have been one great cause of change of view. A second cause has been the large and fruitful practical results which have followed the prosecution of various fields of natural science. For a time the tendency to a levelling of religions, and the tendency to rely implicitly upon the methods of physical science, have paralysed theology. Now a change has come. It is more or less manifest in every land. The closing years of the nineteenth century seem likely to be characterised by a revival of theology, as the opening years were characterised by a revival of religion. There is, indeed, as this book will show, no branch of theology which has not received a new impulse. Natural theology is coming out stronger than ever from the attacks of an antitheistic science. Ethnic theology has never been so methodically and dispassionately studied since the commerce and colonisation of England have opened up the darkest places of the heathen world. From the antagonistic criticism of rationalism, the sciences arising from Biblical study have issued at once more sure and less vulnerable. The history of the Church has never before received such able treatment, whether in general or detail. The new spirit of constructiveness is beginning to spread to doctrinal theology, with very reassuring results. Pastoral theology in all its branches, from the practical tendency of the times, has likewise received enrichment both in depth and breadth. Doubtless much remains to be done in all branches, but the comfort is that all theological science has now entered upon a career of progress, where every worker may do useful service if he will. The negative spirit has done its work; now the positive spirit can steadily proceed with its task. It is no longer necessary to rebuild from the foundations. Solid, impregnable foundations have been laid; in many branches of theology splendid and stable superstructures have been built; in all branches a steady progress is possible. "The harvest truly is plenteous, but the labourers are few."

Studiously brief, however, as this sketch of the course of theology has been, it has thrown several facts into the strongest relief, viz., first, that there is an experimental knowledge of religion apart from science; secondly, that there is an irresistible necessity for all robust religion to pass from experimental to scientific knowledge; thirdly, that the progress of theological science depends as well upon a revival or expansion of religious experience as upon the prosecution of scientific method; and fourthly, that the vitality, the method, the freedom from the trammels of the unreliable results of the past, and at the same time the desire to recognise all the truth the past has discovered, all of which characterise the present age, promise as fruitful and progressive a study of theology as of other branches of science pursued by man. The way is more sure than ever before and more trodden. Many a height has already been scaled, blessed be God! Heights still stretch above us, blessed again be God! Wider and clearer vision will reward each upward step, however easy or difficult,—Excelsior!

# § 13.

### HINTS ON THE BIBLIOGRAPHY OF THEOLOGY.

Yet another detail of our plan calls for some additional remark. Before proceeding to the study of the several branches of theology, a few words may be advisably given to the subject of bibliography, upon which all modern inquiry has become exceptionally sensitive. It is manifest that a guide to the principal books in any sphere of investigation is an invaluable assistance either as directing the beginner or economising the labour of the more advanced student. Some guidance of this kind it is proposed to offer. But not every book that has ever been written upon any or every theological subject calls for mention. All the books of value to the student fall under two categories; their interest lies either

in their historical character or in their present utility. There are books which mark the several epochs in the history of any investigation, and there are also books of special usefulness in obtaining a competent knowledge of the present state of a question. Only these two classes call for notice here. Books, for example, the expression of which is their sole originality, may serve a temporary purpose, but they have little worth for the student. A worker in scientific chemistry does not load his library or his mind with the numerous popular expositions of chemistry written to amuse the leisurely or instruct the young. Hence the method of citation adopted in this book. On the one hand, a historical sketch of the progress made in every branch of theological inquiry has been given, and here the principal epoch-making books are named and characterised. On the other hand, in addition to the works which form landmarks on the road of historical survey, lists are presented of those contemporary or recent writings which are noteworthy, being history in the making. These selected lists, which have called for much time and thought, will be arranged under two heads, the one containing the best book (or books, in a few instances), in the writer's esteem, for the beginner, and the other containing books adapted for more complete study. The several books named will also be arranged in chronological order, seeing that frequently an important element in judging the value of a book is its date. Such being the method adopted, there is the more necessity to point out once for all where information as to the whole wide range of relative literature may be obtained. As complete a view, therefore, as is possible to the author shall be given of this growingly important subsidiary aid to theological study, and it will be strange if some useful hints are not thrown out upon the collections of theological works likely to prove of service to the explorer in the fields of religious science. Such hints at any rate given to the present writer, when theology first became to him a pursuit worthy of passionate devotion and lifelong research, would have saved him years of labour.

Let it be understood, however, that reference will not be made to works upon bibliography in general, such as the

monster compilations of Brunet, Ebert, Watts, and Lowndes, a good list of which will be found under the heading "Bibliographie Universelle" in M. Vallée's useful book, Bibliographie des Bibliographies, Paris 1883, or in the Hand List of Bibliographies, Classified Catalogues and Indexes placed in the Reading Room, published by the authorities of the British Museum in 1881. Much useful information, too, on this head is given in the chapters on "General" and "Special Bibliographies" in Wheatley's fascinating little book, How to Form a Library (2nd. edit. 1886). If an exception be made, it shall be in favour of Swan Sonnenschein's, The Best Books, a Reader's Guide to the Choice of the best available Books (about 50,000) in every department of Science, Art, and Literature, 1st. edit. 1887 (since reprinted, with slight corrections, four times), and its continuation, A Reader's Guide to Contemporary Literature, 1895. Nor will reference be made here to the bibliography of any section of theology, such as, to name a familiar instance, Mr. Spurgeon's Commenting and Commentaries. These sectional bibliographies will be mentioned in their proper places. At present we are only concerned with express works upon theological bibliography in general.

There are three modes of arrangement for books on books, viz. the ALPHABETICAL order, the CHRONOLOGICAL, and the order of SUBJECTS. Each has its special advantages, and each may be modified by adopting one or both of the others as a subsidiary arrangement. The alphabetical order is of greatest utility to the librarian, the chronological to the historian, and the subject order to the student.

As far as the student of theology is concerned, the ALPHA-BETICAL order, naturally followed in cataloguing every library, is only of value when the name of the author or the title of his book is previously known. Such preliminary knowledge having been somehow gained, an alphabetical bibliography may give additional particulars as to title, or may guide to the whereabouts of the book itself. Every public library at home or abroad of any value is possessed of an alphabetical catalogue, which, in such cases as those of the British Museum, the Bibliothèque Nationale, and the great German

University libraries (some useful information upon which, well worthy of being completed to date by some competent person in a new edition or separate work, may be found in Horne's Introduction to the Study of Bibliography, 2 vols., London 1814), are monuments of industry and utility. The alphabetical order is also of value in calling attention to new books, as is seen in the several publishers' catalogues, and in such bibliographical serials as the London Circular, or Vandenhaeck and Ruprecht's annual catalogue of all German theological books, published since 1841. In cases where for any reason access is required to an alphabetical bibliography, the British Museum catalogue may be resorted to. Darling, Cuclonædia Bibliographica, vol. i. Authors (to be described at more length presently), may be mentioned also as useful for English works; and for German, Zuchold, Bibliotheca Theologica, Göttingen 1864, which contains all German theological works which appeared between 1830 and the date of publication, that very active time in German theological production. Orme's Bibliotheca Biblica, London 1824, is an alphabetical list of selected books on all branches of theology, of some use to the beginner because of its added biographical and critical notices. Good lists and reviews of new theological books will be found, in English, weekly in the Athenaum and Academy, monthly in the Bookseller, and quarterly in the Critical Review; in German (and in French and English and Dutch), in the very careful and complete bibliography of Dr. Caspar René Gregory, and later of Dr. Johannes Müller, and more recently of Paul Pape, published in the fortnightly issues of the Theologische Literaturzeitung. an admirable review. Good lists and reviews of American theology, as well as of German and English works, are given in the American Presbyterian Review, published quarterly, and continued, since 1890, under the title of the Presbyterian and Reformed Review.

Collections of theological works arranged CHRONOLOGICALLY are of somewhat greater utility to the student, and in investigations into specific periods are almost indispensable. From a very early date ecclesiastical writers have been classified chronologically, such classifications commonly including

discussions upon the genuine and spurious works attributed to the several authors; indeed, these early summaries were so far from being bare lists of authors and their works, that they mostly contained biographical and critical matter of a greater or less completeness. In Miraus, Bibliotheca Ecclesiastica, Antwerp 1639, seven earlier works were collated, beginning with Jerome's treatise De Viris Illustribus, and in Fabricius, Bibliotheca Ecclesiastica, Hamburg 1718, all Miræus was reprinted together with large additions, certainly the best edition of the ecclesiastical bibliographers prior to the seventeenth century. But it was the great theological activity of the seventeenth century, the Scholastic Age of the Reformation, which gave birth to many original bibliographical works, some of permanent utility, but all adopting the classification of ecclesiastical writers by centuries, and all containing much biographical and critical matter. Cardinal Bellarmin, the famous champion of Tridentine doctrine, led the way with his De Scriptoribus Ecclesiasticis, Rome 1613, and he was followed by the Jesuit Labbé, who wrote his Bibliotheca Chronologica of the fathers, theologians, and ecclesiastical writers, Paris 1659, and his Dissertatio, Paris 1660, on the writers treated by Bellarmin. These works cleared the way, which was to become a broad high-road on the appearance at nearly the same time of two "magna opera," the one by the Romanist, the famous doctor of the Sorbonne and ecclesiastical historian, Ellies du Pin, who left his mark on several sections of theology, and the other by the English Protestant, the learned Dr. William Cave, a canon of Windsor. The work of the former, Nouvelle Bibliothèque des auteurs ecclésiastiques, Paris, 1st edit. 1688, 2nd edit. in 19 vols. 1693-1715, professedly gave all the ecclesiastical writers to the invention of printing, and, as the sub-title stated, "contained the history of their lives, the catalogue, criticism, and chronology of their works, the summary of their contents, a judgment upon their style and their doctrine, and the enumeration of the different editions of their works," Cave's Scrintorum Ecclesiasticorum Historia Literaria followed the same lines, and was first published in London in 1688, and next, in an emendated edition, in 1698. The best edition is of later date still.

1740 the latest English edition was issued at Oxford, containing the final emendations and enlargements of the author, and continued to date by Wharton, of Polyglot fame. edition of 1741 was made from this last edition. Undoubtedly Cave was a very credulous writer, and incorporated in his pages the judgments of Roman Catholics without much Jortin called him "the whitewasher of the criticism. Nevertheless, however dubitable his biography ancients." and suspect his criticism, his book remains to-day the great guide to manuscript lore prior to the invention of printing. Cave is for MSS. what Winer is for printed books. In 1722, Casimir Oudin, the distinguished Romish professor who turned Protestant,—he had written in 1686 a supplement to Bellarmin's De Scriptoribus Ecclesiasticis,—issued his Commentarius de Scriptoribus Ecclesiasticis in three volumes, with the idea of supplementing gaps and errors in Cave and his predecessors. This latter work was of course laid under contribution, with some acerbity, in the preparation of Cave's last edition. But the chronological order passed out of fashion with Cave, and So long as the Church was undivided, and so reasonably. long as the number of writers was, under the influence of Rome, comparatively small, treatment by centuries was instructive as well as feasible; but when the Reformation gave rise to many sects and inumerable writers, it was scarcely possible and certainly undesirable to proceed any longer on the secular method. In the multiplicity of books the chronological order has given place to the order of subjects. A popularisation of the several works named under this chronological mode, of some value to the beginner because of its brevity and its being written in English, was issued by Dr. Adam Clarke in 1821, and in completed form in 1830-1831, in two octavo volumes; but Dr. Clarke, in this Concise View of the Succession of Sacred Literature in a Chronological Arrangement of Authors and their Works, should have acknowledged his much larger indebtedness to Dr. Cave, whom he does not name, than to Dr. Du Pin, whom he does mention.

Lists of books classified under subjects are given, as has been pointed out in § 5, in most works on Theological Intro-

duction, those of Clarisse and Hagenbach especially deserving mention. Indeed, Hagenbach gives under each subdivision of theology a fairly complete list of all German books published in recent years, these lists being brought up to date in each successive edition, and the more important ones being indicated by an asterisk. The American translations of Hagenbach gives additional lists of English and American works. The lists of books in Schaff's *Theological Propædeutic* and Kihn's *Encyklopädie*, are also very noteworthy.

So, too, more or less complete lists of the best relative literature are given in the several large theological encyclopædias (in the English sense of the word), where all the prominent articles give lists of books, naturally more complete for their special tongues than for foreign. It is therefore advisable to consult each national encyclopædia for the literature in its own tongue. William Smith's Dictionary of the Bible, London, 3 vols., 1683 (a new edition of the first volume appeared in 1893), and his Dictionaries of Antiquities and Biography, 2 vols., 1876, etc., and of Literature, Sects, and Doctrines, London, 4 vols., 1877, etc., will guide to English books. M'Clintock and Strong's Cyclopædia of Biblical, Theological, and Ecclesiastical Literature, 12 vols, New York 1874-1887, will direct to American as well as English literature. Herzog's Real-Encyklopädie, 22 vols., Hamburgh 1854-1868, will perform the same office for German works: a second edition, edited by Herzog and Plitt and Hauck, in 18 vols., was begun in 1876, and completed in 1888: the first part of a third edition has been issued this year (1896), also edited by Albert Hauck. Lichtenberger's Encyclopédie des Sciences Religieuses renders similar service for all French and Swiss books. The new edition of Wetzel and Welte's Kirchenlexikon oder Encyklopädie der katholiken Theologic, first edited by Cardinal Hergenröther, and subsequently edited by Dr. Franz Kaulen, Freiburg 1877, etc. (of which 9 vols. have appeared to date), will point the student to all prominent Roman Catholic works.

Many volumes have, however, been expressly devoted to subject lists of theological works. Some of these have taken the form of handy guides for pastors in the formation of their libraries, amongst which may be named: - Bray, Bibliotheca Parochialis, etc., 2nd edit., London 1707; "a scheme of such theological and other heads, as seem requisite to be perused and occasionally consulted by the reverend clergy": Niemeyer, Bibliothek für Prediger und Freunde der theologischen Literatur, 3 vols., Halle 1796-1798, an appendix to which was published in 1812 with the literature from 1796-1810: Rolland, Conseils pour former une bibliothèque ou catalogue raisonné de tous les bons ouvrages qui peuvent entrer dans une bibliothèque chrétienne, 3 vols., Lyons 1833-1843: Dana, Bibliotheca Probata, "Catalogue of Books, selected, examined, and arranged under the heads of Bibles, prayer-books, commentaries, devotional library, family library, parish library, parish school library, Sunday-school library, academic and school district library, with full descriptive titles, characterisation, and prices, to which is appended a list for the library of a parish minister," 2nd edit., New York 1857.

But from the time of the Reformation, when the invention of printing and the religious revival combined so largely increased the number of authors, many books have been explicitly devoted to giving, not selections merely of theological works under heads, but as complete lists as possible of theological literature arranged in various manners according to subjects. The bare titles of the more important will suffice here, their labours having been supplemented and supplanted by later bibliographies, for example, Zannichius, Bibliotheca Theologia, Mulhaus 1591: Besodner, Bibliotheca Theologica, Frankfort 1608: Bolduan, Bibliotheca Theologica, Jena 1614: Kemp, Charismatum sacrorum Trias, sive bibliotheca anglorum theologica, London 1677: Lipen, Bibliotheca realis theologica. 2 vols., Frankfort 1685: Dorn, Bibliotheca theologica critica, Frankfort and Leipzig 1721-1723: Stengel, Apparatus librorum theologicorum, Ulm 1724: Pfaff, Introductio in historiam theologiæ literariam, 3 vols., Tübingen 1724-1726: Calmet, Supplementary volume to the Dictionnaire de la Bible, Paris 1728, containing a Bibliothèque sacrée: Stoll, Anleitung zur Historie der theologischen Gelahrtheit, Jena 1739: Lilienthal, Theologisch-homiletischer Archivarius, Jena 1749: Miller, Systematische Anleitung zur Kenntniss auserlesener Bücher in der Theologie und in den damit verbundenen Wissenschaften, Leipzig 1773, 3rd edit. 1781: Döderlein, Auserlesene theologische Bibliothek, 4 vols., Leipzig 1780–1792: Keil, Systematisches Verzeichniss derjenigen theologischen Schriften und Bücher deren Kenntniss allgemein nothig und nützlich istentworfen, 2nd edit., Stendal 1792: Nösselt, Anweisung zur Kenntniss der besten allgemeinen Bücher in allen Theilen der Theologie, Giessen 1796: Ersch, Literatur der Theologie seit der Mitte des 18<sup>ten</sup> Jahrhunderts bis auf die neueste Zeit, 2nd edit., Leipzig 1822: Danz, Universal-Wörterbuch der theologischen, kirchen- und religionsgeschichtlichen Literatur, Leipzig 1843.

Of a few works of a more indispensable kind a more lengthy description is necessary. From 1757 to 1765 Walch published at Jena, in four volumes, his Bibliotheca selecta litterariis adnotationibus instructa, a monument of erudition, by far the most complete and valuable work then published. and even to-day a compendium not wholly superseded. successive chapters, admirably and suggestively arranged, the literature is given of works on theological method, on dogmatic, symbolic, catechetic, polemic and moral theology, and on ecclesiastical history, exegesis, and homiletics, the whole being completed by an excellent index of authors. In 1709, Jacques Le Long, the Oratorian, had published in two volumes at Paris his Bibliotheca Sacra; and in 1723 a second and much improved edition appeared; then a valuble supplement having been afterwards added and the entire work revised by Börner, an enlarged and extended edition was published by Masch in five volumes at Halle, 1778-1790. For lists of the various editions of the Scriptures in all languages this work, and especially the last edition, is invaluable. In the Handbuch der theologischen Literatur, one of the many useful works of Winer, the author of the best grammar of New Testament Greek, a yet more indispensable bibliographical work is found; the first edition was published in 1821, and the third, largely augmented, in two volumes, from 1838-1840, whilst a supplementary volume completed the literature to the close of 1841. In the second volume, an alphabetical list of authors is given, together with brief biographies; in the first volume,—a most conclusive testimony to the industry

of the man who in the days of penurious youth possessed himself of a Greek grammar by copying one out,—the outline of the scientific division of theology, which Winer himself advocated in his lectures on methodology, is retained, and under the several headings of introductory works upon all or several of the branches of theology, exegetical works, systematic works, historical works, and practical works, each of which divisions is again subdivided into many sections, nineand-twenty in all, all printed works published in Germany are arranged in chronological order, together with many works of foreign presses. As might have been anticipated, the weakness of this useful book lies in its slight knowledge of English theology. This lack may be supplied in many ways. Thus, as far as all branches of Biblical study are concerned, Prebendary Horne added to the second volume of his wellknown Introduction to the Critical Study and Knowledge of the Holy Scriptures, which has passed, with occasional re-editing. through a dozen editions, a very voluminous and careful bibliography, rich in its tables of the editions of the entire texts and versions of the Bible, and in its lists of treatises upon all branches of the criticism and interpretation of the Scriptures. It should be noted, however, that this bibliographical supplement has been withdrawn from all editions later than the ninth, which appeared in 1846. Again, Darling's Cyclopædia Bibliographica, a manual of theological literature, in 2 vols., London 1854-1859, vol. i. Authors, vol. ii. Subjects, supplements the deficiencies of Horne. The strength of Darling, in addition to the fact that it carries on the literature by more than ten years, lies in its Practical Theology; for, under its commentaries, it supplies not only the names of entire works, but all that rich expository literature to be found in the long and splendid course of the pulpit. Darling claims for his book that by its means "a ready reference may be obtained to what has been brought to bear on any passage by the eloquent St. Basil, St. Chrysostom, Jeremy Taylor, Bossuet, Bourdaloue, Massillon, and Saurin; the imaginative Thomas Adams, Fuller, and Seed; the witty South; the silver-tongued Bates; the profound Jackson, Owen, and Charnock; the persuasive Hopkins, Baxter, Patrick; the

argumentative Butler, Clarke, Jortin, Balguy; the judicious Hooker, Sanderson; the practical Henry Smith, Bolton, and Secker, and their numerous, no less eminent, contemporaries and successors; . . . thus by the array of subjects presented in this volume, a kind of running commentary may be obtained throughout the whole Scriptures, clear statements of the chief points of doctrine and fact, and happy expressions of thought, throwing direct light on many difficult passages." In the volume on Authors, all English authors of works more or less elucidatory of the Bible are mentioned in alphabetical order; a list is given of their works, extending to the texts and titles of all sermons in volumes, and a brief criticism and biography in each case. In the second volume, Subjects, the various writers are named under a subject-division, which, beginning with works on general bibliography and the bibliography of theology, proceeds to treat of all varieties of works upon Scripture throughout no less than nearly 1900 quarto columns. In Malcolm, Interleaved Theological Commonplace Book and Index of References to the Principal Works in every Department of Theological Literature, London 1868, there are no less than 70,000 citations of theological works arranged alphabetically under two thousand heads. Unhappily, therefore, although there is here stored a very large amount of laborious research, the book is difficult to use. An alphabetical order of subjects is the least useful even when the subjects are comparatively few, but when they number a couple of thousand from Aaron, Abelard, Ability, Abraham, Abrahamic Covenant to Zabians, Zeal, Zendavesta, Zinzendorf, and Zwingle, the utility is seriously compromised. To obtain a list of books on the Work of Christ, for example, it is necessary to turn to Atonement, Messiah, Mediation, Redemption, and Sacrifice; and to obtain a list on Biblical criticism, the headings must be consulted of Difficulties of the Bible, Figurative Language, Hebrew, Hermeneutics, Idioms, Philology, Poetry, Printed Editions, Quotations, Style, Synonyms, Various Readings, and Vowel Points, as well as the heading of Biblical Criticism. And yet another work deserves honourable mention as an excellent aid to the study of English theological books, viz., Hurst, Bibliotheca Theologica: a Select and Classified Bibliography of

Theology and General Religious Literature, New York 1883. This bibliography confines itself to books of the English and American markets. A new edition was issued in 1896 under the title of Literature of Theology, a Classified Bibliography of Theological and General Religious Literature, virtually a new book from its omissions and additions, its introduction of published prices, and its excellent indexes. It is admirably classified, being divided into five parts, in the first of which works are given on the general study of theology, on theological bibliography, lexicography, etc.; in the second follow works pertaining to exegetical theology; in the third, those belonging to historical theology, in the fourth to systematic, and in the last to practical theology; then, in addition to this more scientific treatment, there is also an alphabetical arrangement, somewhat minutely worked out, of general subjects under the four last divisions. An example will show the method. Exegetical theology is treated under three divisions; the first dealing with textual and exegetical criticism, viz. grammars and lexicons, original texts; the second, commentaries on the whole Bible, on the Old Testament entire, on the New Testament entire, on the several books of the Bible in order; and the third division treating of general subjects under sixty-nine heads arranged alphabetically, beginning with Antiquities, Apocryphal Books, Apologetics, Apostles, Archeology, Arithmetic, Assyriology, Astronomy, Authenticity, Authority, Bible and Modern Discovery, Bible and Pagan Nations, Biblical History, Canon. Altogether the book will be found most useful. Dr. Hurst is one of the editors of the American translation of Hagenbach previously mentioned, and has supplemented Hagenbach's lists of books by lists of English and American theological publications. The Theologischer Jahresbericht, edited first by Pünjer, then by Lipsius, and now by Holtzmann (with many collaborateurs), published yearly since 1882, affords an admirable guide to the German theological literature of the preceding year, the several sections -on the Old Testament, the New Testament, Church History, Philosophy of Religion and Apologetics, Dogmatics, Ethics, Practical Theology—being each confided to one or more specialists, who enumerate and criticise not only express works on the several sections, but even review articles and pamphlets. The *Critical Review*, edited by Dr. Salmond, and published quarterly [T. & T. Clark] since 1891, is also an excellent guide to current theological and philosophical literature. The admirable reviews of the *Presbyterian Review*, of the *Presbyterian and Reformed Review*, and of the *Theologische Literaturzeitung*, have been previously mentioned.

To Roman Catholic theological literature a useful guide is now being issued by Dr. Gla. It is being published at Paderborn, and is entitled a Systematically Arranged Repertorium of Catholic Theological Literature, which has appeared in Germany, Austria, and Switzerland since 1700. Judging from the first section, of course in German, published in 1895, and dealing with the literature of Theological Introduction and Biblical Exegesis, the work will be singularly careful and complete. H. Hurter, Nomenelator literarius recentioris theologiae catholicae, theologos exhibens, qui inde a concilio tridentino floruerunt, 2nd edit., 3 vols., Innsbruck, 1892–5, may be advantageously consulted; all Romanist books, whether published in France, Germany, Belgium, Austria, Spain, or England, are arranged, for every twenty years or so, under headings; there are also good indexes.

## § 14.

SOME PRACTICAL HINTS WORTHY OF CONSIDERATION BY
THE STUDENT OF THEOLOGY.

The general survey of theology is now concluded, but before passing on to the several specific sciences, let a few words of counsel be given to the student.

FIRST, Love truth as you would love God. "Truth," says Lord Bacon, in his well-known essay, "teacheth that the inquiry of truth, which is the love-making or wooing of it, the knowledge of truth, which is the presence of it, and the belief of truth, which is the enjoying of it, is the sovereign good of human nature;" and Locke, in one of his letters,

writes: "To love truth for truth's sake, is the principal part of human perfection in this world, and the seed-plot of all other virtues." Such testimonies might be indefinitely increased, for what considerable writer has not said something concerning the value of truth, or the necessity of loyalty and persistence in its pursuit? But the Christian student has the highest incentive for making the pursuit of truth the passion of his life. God is truth as well as love. The investigation of truth is the search after God; the attainment of truth is the acquisition of insight into His being or plans. He who is Way and Life, in the great inclusive words of John, is also Truth. To acquire truth is to re-think the divine thoughts.

"The power to bind and loose to Truth is given;
The mouth that speaks it, is the mouth of heaven.

It owes its high prerogative to none,
It shines for all, as shines the blessed sun;
It shines in all, who do not shut it out,
By dungeon doors of unbelief and doubt.
Rabbi and priest may be chained down to lies,
And babes and sucklings winged to mount the skies."

Be, however, SECONDLY, always on your guard against confounding your views of truth with truth absolute. Our days are short, and the thoughts of God are deep. Every age grapples with the unknown, and opens up some new aspect of the universe. Truth is attainable, doubtless; but truth, truth in its complex interweaving, is infinite. Alas! it is only truth in some of its finite phases which we are each able to grasp. The truth of the individual man who has not done mentally growing is perpetually changing with the knowledge of new truth or the altered position of old, and the same is just as true of masses of men. The comfort is that the love of truth shows an advanced state of the intellect, itself a guarantee of faculties ripe enough for successful inquiry. As Jean Paul said in his Levana, "Since truthfulness, as a conscious virtue and sacrifice, is the blossom, nay the pollen, of the whole moral growth, it can only grow with its growth, and open when it has reached its height." Another comfort is that if the mind remain plastic, our finite truth perpetually approximates to infinite truth by a perpetual enlargement

and adjustment. As the mental vision becomes clearer and the faculties expand, it is often not so much that a different object presents itself to the mind, but the same object with greater definition. The further pursuit of truth does not always resemble the turning of a kaleidoscope, where the same objects arrange themselves in all sorts of novel and unexpected positions; rather is it very frequently the examination of the same object with telescopes of higher and higher powers and ever decreasing chromatic disturbance. Or we may say that the search after truth is like an arduous mountain ascent, where the labour and fatigue are rewarded step by step by the enlarging horizon and the more accurate and balanced vision of objects near and remote. Nevertheless, however prolonged and accurate our search, and however vast and successful the labours of our predecessors, the limitations of our knowledge should always form an element in our judgment. Humility and moderation are, it is proverbial, some of the most conspicuous fruits of the tree of knowledge.

And THIRDLY, let belief be proportioned to the evidence. Commonly accepted as this dictum is, history declares it to be rarely acted on. Very subtle are the influences of bias, and they baffle some of the most veracious of minds. Love and hatred predispose us to be credulous; sinfulness disorders our moral judgment; intellectual prepossessions prompt to belief or disbelief; and consequences colour decisions how frequently. The mere fact that a proposition seems original introduces the distorting element of fondness for our own creations. The tolerance of parents where their children are concerned is a byword. What is before our eyes is apt to make us forget the unseen. Adherence to a system oftentimes makes blind to the truth of opposing systems. The needs of place, party, or bread mingle with beliefs in a manner often unsuspected. Truth is the precious product of pure reason, using the words in a much wider sense than Kant; and what a conflict is this purification,—with sense, with tradition, with feeling, with early teaching and late acquirement. The whole history of man is a comment upon this statement. Notice, for example, how philosophical systems have coloured the views of religious truth; how Platonism,

for instance, gave a twist to the splendid mind of Origen, and to the Alexandrian school generally. Was it not the oriental philosophical dualism which gave birth to Gnosticism? There would have been no Scholastic Age but for Aristotle. The systems of Descartes, Leibnitz, Spinoza, Wolff, Kant, Fichte, Schelling, and Hegel, to mention prominent Continental thinkers, have all been followed by distinct theological schools. English rationalism sprang from English philosophy. May not another characteristic set of illustrations be derived from the overpowering influence of great minds? How much of conviction, apparently based on reasonable grounds and hardwon truth, ought to be really ascribed to respect for the authority of Aquinas, say, of Luther, Calvin or Wesley, of Swedenborg or Edward Irving? The literary form even created by some minds has become the dogma of their followers, and figures of speech have been regarded as balanced arguments. Bring, therefore, all your logic to bear in the formation of your creed.

This leads to saying, in the FOURTH place, be scientific, that is, clear, orderly, consistent, calm, patient, in maturing your convictions. They will be found golden rules in inquiry, to economise labour and facilitate success by being methodical,-to be satisfied with nothing short of consistency in thoughts,-to distinguish carefully between thoughts and expression (the same thought may appear under several forms of words, and the same words may convey very different thoughts),—to give much attention to accuracy and clearness of definition,—to suspend judgment where satisfactory conclusions are not reached,—to remember with Seneca that "veritatem dies aperit" ("time unlocks truth"), and with Plautus, that "dum omnia quærimus, aliquando ad verum, ubi minime expectavimus, pervenimus" (" while we are searching everything, we sometimes find truth where we least expected it"). "Truth, like the sun," it has been said, "submits to be obscured, but only for a time." So much for the logical aspects of inquiry, as necessary in theology as in any other science.

But, FIFTHLY, never lose sight of the peculiar danger of intellectual inquiries into religious matters. The danger to

which I refer is the bewilderment of mind which is liable to attend the passage from an unreasoning to a rational state, a danger which theology shares with all mental pursuits, perhaps in a larger degree. Lord Bacon wisely said, "It is true that a little philosophy (he means intellectual study) inclineth man's mind to atheism, but depth in philosophy bringeth men's minds about to religion; for while the mind of man looketh upon second causes scattered, it may sometimes rest in them and go no further; but when it beholdeth the chain of them confederate, and linked together, it must needs fly to Providence and Deity;" a passage which not improbably contains the germ of Pope's famous lines,—

"A little learning is a dangerous thing;
Drink deep, or taste not the Pierian spring."

This is one danger of scientific study,—that God may be forgotten in engrossing investigation of His works. But it is a more serious and common danger to which reference is here made. Hegel would explain all the processes of the universe by regarding them as necessary phases by which the Absolute or Pure Being or God attains to selfconsciousness. This is Pantheism. Nevertheless, Hegel's principle resulted from applying to the divine sphere what is certainly characteristic of the human. Intuitions are given to every man; the translation of these intuitions into terms of the intellect is a slow, tedious, and painful process. Consciousness is coeval with life; self-consciousness is born of conflict and contrast. Take a few simple instances. Light we all know by mere seeing; its rational explanation is the result of a laborious process, first of discovery, then of acquisition; and in the intellectual study of light a further fact is noteworthy,—the sensitiveness, discrimination, and delicacy of the eyesight may be injured. The same is true of music; most men receive pleasure from the intuitive sense of harmonious sounds; few are capable of the expression and explanation of those sounds in the terms of the reason; there is a lower intuitive knowledge and there is a higher rational knowledge; it is a necessity of our natures not to rest always content with sensuous apprehension, but to advance to intellectual

comprehension; and in this case also it is commonly found that, in the acquisition of the theory of music, the ears become for a time less acute to the pleasures and delights of musical sound: the intellectual interest deadens the intuitive sense. It ever requires a laborious education to do these two things well at once,—to feel and to criticise feeling. instances are simply illustrations of a great law. The life of man advances, as it unfolds, from the state of feeling to that of knowledge, from perception to cognition, from apprehension to comprehension; and experience shows on all hands that there is a special danger in this unavoidable transition from nonage to maturity, namely, that although the final lucidity is greater than the first lucidity, the early clearness becomes confused before the latest clearness is reached. Dawn only becomes day after an interval of mist. In the first stage of knowledge, which is largely a state of feeling, the knowledge gained is isolated, disconnected, specific, and bounded everywhere by a near circumference of ignorance; the maturer stage superadds rational comprehension to sensuous apprehension, when the isolated becomes classifiable, the disconnected interlinked, the specific general, and (although limitation is not annihilated) the horizon is more distant; but in the passage from one state to the other, we have usually to encounter a time when the eye does not perform its functions well from the difficulty in adjusting itself to two foci at once. It is easy to feel, and it is easy to think, but in the endeavour to combine feeling and thinking, sensation is liable to appear dulled, whereas intellect has not arrived at clearness. It is so in all knowledge; it is especially so in religious knowledge. The path of the theological learner is too often like the journeying of ancient Israel; a wilderness intervenes between Egypt and Canaan, so tangled and wearisome at times that the weaker spirits long to return to the flesh-pots of the land of sense and appetite. To repeat our previous figure, the sun, which is the source of our light, has a glorious dawn, but before it reaches its more brilliant noon, to our dismay and perplexity it often veils itself in clouds of its own making. The theologian cannot escape from the condition of all knowledge. His career commences in feeling; God and

Christ, sin and salvation, are experienced rather than fully known. If he would outgrow the immature stage of experimental knowledge, and attain a knowledge satisfactory to the intellect, it is well for him to recognise the peril incidental to this growth. His first strong feelings will probably lessen in intensity at the outset, and for a time he may seem to lose more than he gains. He must persevere notwithstanding. Let his moral behaviour be right, let his honesty be thorough, let his perseverance be courageous, let his self-denial be unstinted; in a word, let him as carefully attend to his spiritual culture as to his intellectual, utilising the various means of grace,-prayer, meditation, Scripture-reading, and the several forms of Christian labour,—and in the end he will attain a more lasting and certain rest, he will reach his majority, where intense feeling, keen intellect, and robust will have arrived at harmonious and delightful working in the fearless realisation of Christian truth. He will walk at liberty. Certainly it would be well to have no passions and to live a kind of Edenic life which is ignorant of evil, but it is assuredly better to have had passions, to have held them with a firm rein, and to have reached the calm of conquered passion. Similarly, turning from the emotional to the intellectual arena, it is doubtless good to enjoy the unquestioning delight of the first hours of pronounced Christian experience, but it is incalculably better to attain the immovable delight of the mature and rational Christian. Be not very disturbed, therefore, by confusion in the early study of theology. Regard these painful and perplexing hours as a form of your discipline, and as means to a splendid end. Remember that if the student of theology is liable to lose his initial enjoyment in the intense and distracting wrestlings of thought, he is at least on the road to higher things, and dare not surrender, if he would, the anxieties of the thoughtful for the sentiments of the unintelligent. The theologian must pay the penalty of all thought. It is impossible to pluck the tree of knowledge of good and evil without suffering. Or, to elaborate a previous figure, the student of theology journeys forth with mingled tears and joy from the pleasures of Egypt, where he has passed his childhood, that

he may travel to the Canaan of conscious appreciation and reflective assurance, and, the long and trying journey once commenced, he must steadily pursue his way in spite of occasional repinings for the unthinking days which are past for ever, although, alas! his path may lie through a wilderness of interminable crossings and counter-crossings apparently, or through a sea which shuts away for ever "the heaven that lies about us in our infancy"—

"Those first affections,
Those shadowy recollections,
Which be they what they may,
Are yet the fountain-light of all our day,
Are yet a master-light of all our seeing."

Progress is a necessity of our being. We cannot remain children for ever; and if the struggle to which we are called be severe, let us ever recollect that the Via Dolorosa will conduct us in good time to a crown as well as a cross, to spiritual manhood in fact, when our joyous experience of the saving power of Christ our Redeemer will flow from every faculty of our being, mind and will and heart. For very mental repose, it is impossible to remain always in a halfintuitive knowledge of divine things. Because of the united force of our natures and our circumstances, thought must on for weal or woe. This is a consequence of the high destiny of man. Yet, after all, Eden is cold, contracted, and shadowy in comparison with the glow and consciousness and assurance of the Paradise Regained. To change the figure, theology, like the heavens, is "full of stars which appear not to a careless spectator, but a diligent contemplator, with suitable helps, will find new worlds of glory in every part."

"As carefully attend to spiritual as to intellectual culture," we have just said. Ever remembering, then, the relativity of spiritual knowledge, pay much attention, LASTLY, to the culture of the religious nature. There are obstacles many and great in the pursuit of theology as well as in the prosecution of all knowledge, and there are obstacles peculiar to this branch of study. Not to enlarge upon several hindrances which are obvious, such as the vastness of the materials, the accumulation of the related literature, the severity of the needful

preparatory discipline, the government of mind and heart and conscience and spirit requisite, the temptation to mistake the means of theology for its end, like the miser who loves his gold and not the things gold can purchase, there is one obstacle to which distinct reference should be made. Theology demands a religious preparation. The natural faculties are adequate to the study of physical science; religious faculties are requisite for any thoroughgoing study of theology. "He that doeth My will, shall know of the doctrine," said our Lord to the perplexed Jews who found contradictions in His teaching concerning His person; and the principle is of the widest application in theological inquiry. As a blind man cannot judge colour or a deaf man criticise music, each lacking a requisite experience, each being devoid of a necessary sense, so the man who is not living in obedience to the precepts of religion is deficient in the religious sense by which he can fairly judge of those precepts. To cultivate the religious nature is to train the organ of theological observation; and as freehand drawing may drill the eye to the accurate observation of material things, so a holy life drills the spiritual eye to accurate observation of religious things, with this difference in the two cases, that in the latter the preliminary preparation is indispensable, and in the former advisable simply. "Bene orasse est bene studiisse." Many devils which torture students of theology are only to be cast out with prayer and fasting. But then this remedy for excessive and speculative theorising is analogous to that adopted in the natural sciences for the same end. Never forget to verify your theories, says science, which, being interpreted, means, in your investigations of nature do not ignore nature,-return to your original sources again and again,—try all inferences by facts. That you do not soar too high on wings too waxen, keep up your communication with terra firma. Similar advice must be given to the student of theology. Ceaselessly refresh yourself at the fountains of your faith. The facts of religion must not be confounded or beclouded by its theories; individual experience must not be superseded by the scientific treatment of experience; and if, in the prosecution of theology, those facts

and experiences bulk less largely or recede into the background, the true resource is to renew the spiritual strength. The Christian life, for example, is a communion with a living Saviour revealing God through the Holy Spirit. Fellowship therefore with the divine, maintained by diligent use of the means of grace, is the cure for the ills that thinking flesh is heir to. Cherish your early convictions, or, if they become enfeebled, renew them in the manner in which they were first gained. Spiritual things are spiritually discerned. Theology will be tottering if religion is feeble; therefore, "Let us run with patience the race that is set before us, looking unto Jesus, the author and the finisher of our faith." "He that believeth in the Son of God hath the witness in himself;" "With the lowly is wisdom;" "The meek will He guide in judgment;" "If thine eye be single, thy whole body shall be full of light;" "If ye continue in My word, then are ye My disciples indeed; and ye shall know the truth, and the truth shall make you free;" "If thou criest after knowledge, and liftest up thy voice for understanding, if thou seekest her as silver, and searchest for her as for hid treasure, then shalt thou understand the fear of the Lord, and find the knowledge of God." "Back to nature" is the advice given to the painter who has become untrue through excessive imaginings; "back to religion" is the advice to the thinker whose religious life flags in theorising. The facts of religion remain, did all theologies perish. Sin is a different thing to the doctrine of sin; the fact of reconciliation is one thing, and the doctrine of atonement another. A man may use a lamp to light his way, even though he be undecided as to whether heat and light are more than modes of motion; coffee is a stimulant, and bread a food, even should their ultimate chemical constitution be unknown; and the facts of religious experience and of Scripture remain, though their formulas escape us and their scientific relations are incompletely grasped. The love of the Father, the power of the Cross of Jesus, the inspiration of the Holy Spirit, the exceeding sinfulness of sin, and the peace of God which passeth all understanding, all these and parallel facts remain, however chaotic our Theologies, and Christologies, and Ponerologies, and Soteriologies. The sense

of the forgiveness of sin is unaffected by the theology I hold; conscious participation in the blessings of restored sonship is independent of my special views upon the limits of the divine fatherhood. Indeed, instead of the facts of the Bible and Christian experience being conditioned by my theology, my theology must be conditioned by Scripture and the Christian consciousness. Schleiermacher stood upon rock when he asserted the self-authentification of the Christian consciousness, for the variations of theologies can no more affect the experiences which constitute and which succeed the new birth, and the facts which produce those experiences, than the variations of biologists affect my assurance that I do live. Let these, then, be the daily rules of the theological student; let him read the Bible daily alone, let him accustom himself to daily private and stated prayer, let him give himself heartily to some form of energetic Christian service, let him keep a strict watch over conduct, for all sin blinds. Certainly, if religious life flags, the dangers of theological study will be augmented a hundredfold. It is equally certain that if the heart be right towards God, no discipline can equal in value the several branches of theology for the suitable training of the workman who needeth not to be ashamed.

> "Das Pergament—ist das der heil'ge Bronnen, Woraus ein Trunk den Durst auf ewig stillt? Erquickung hast du nicht gewonnen, Wenn sie dir nicht aus eigner Seele quillt."

"Parchment and books—are they the holy springs
A drink from which thy thirst for ever stills?
To inspiration hast thou not attained,
Except from thine own soul it freely wells."

-GOETHE, Faust.

#### DEVOTIONAL BOOKS RECOMMENDED.

Note.—Difficulty is often found by the theological student in learning of good books of devotion. Some of the great devotional classics are therefore appended, the date of their first appearance being alone given, inasmuch as many have been issued in very numerous editions. The list, which is a select list, is as follows (of course to be used in addition to the Bible, and the many excellent volumes of suitable sermons and the many good biographies of saintly men and women, all of which are so valuable as inspiring the religious life):—

Arnd, J., Vier Bücher vom wahren Christenthum, 1605. Augustine, Confessions: City of God. Baxter, Richard, The Saint's Everlasting Rest, 1650; Gildas Salvianus, or the Reformed Pastor, 1656; The Divine Life in Three Treatises, the First, Of the Knowledge of God, the Second, Of Walking with God, the Third, Of Conversing with God in Solitude, 1662.

Beveridge, Wm., Private Thoughts upon Religion digested into twelve articles, with practical resolutions framed thereon, 1709.

Boston, Thos., Human Nature in its Fourfold State, 1720.

Browne, Sir Thos., Religio Medici, 1642.

Bruce, A. B., The Training of the Twelve, 1871.

Bunyan, John, The Pilgrim's Progress, from this World to the Other, 1678.

Doddridge, Philip, The Rise and Progress of Religion in the Soul, 1750.

Fénelon, Lettres Spirituelles, 1704, etc.; Explication des Maximes des Saints sur la Vie Intérieure.

Flavell, John, A Saint Indeed, 1673.

FLETCHER, GILES, Christ's Victory and Triumph in Heaven and Earth over and after Death, 1610.

Gurnall, Wm., The Christian in Complete Armour, 1656–1658. Hall, Joseph, Contemplations on Principal Passages of Scripture,

1612-1615.

HARRIS, J. RENDEL, Memoranda Sacra, 1894; Union with God, 1896.
HERBERT, GEORGE, The Temple: Sacred Poems and Private Ejaculations, 1633; A Priest to the Temple, or the Character of a Country Parson, 1675.

Howe, John, The Living Temple, or that a Good Man is the Temple of God, 1675.

Keble, John, The Christian Year, 1827.

Kempis, Thomas A., De Imitatione Christi, c. 1472.

LAW, WM., Serious Call to a Devout Life, 1797.

NORRIS, JOHN, A Collection of Miscellanies, 1687; Christian Blessedness, or Discourses on the Beatitudes, 1690.

OWEN, JOHN, Communion with God, 1656. PASCAL, BLAISE, Pensées Diverses, 1669.

Penn, William, No Cross, No Crown: a Discourse showing the Nature and Discipline of the Holy Cross of Christ, and that the Denying of Self, and duily bearing of Christ's Cross, is the alone way to the rest and kingdom of God, 1682.

Rothe, Rich., Stille Stunden, 1872.

RUTHERFORD, SAMUEL, Religious Letters, 1671.

Schleiermacher, Friedrich, Ueber die Religion, 1799, 1806, 1821, 1831.

Secker, Wm., The Non-such Professor in his Meridian Splendour, 1660.

SIBBES, RICHARD, The Bruised Reed, 1657.

Spener, Philipp Jakob, Pia Desideria, 1675; Das geistliche Priesterthum, 1677.

Spitta, C. J. P., Psalter und Harfe, 1833.

STALKER, JOHN, Imago Christi, 1890.

Taylor, Jeremy, The Rules and Exercise of Holy Living and Dying, 1630.

VENN, HENRY, The Complete Duty of Man, 1764.

WILBERFORCE, WM., Practical View of the prevailing religious System of professed Christians in the Higher and Middle Classes of this Country, contrasted with real Christianity, 1797.

# § 15.

#### BOOKS RECOMMENDED ON THEOLOGY GENERALLY.

# (1.) Dictionaries and Encyclopædias.

See § 13 for Smith, M'Clintock and Strong, Herzog, Lichtenberger, and Wetzel and Welte.

Perthes' Handlexikon für evangelische Theologen, ein Nachschlagebuch für das Gesamtgebiet der wissenschaftlichen und praktischen Theologie, Gotha, 3 vols., 1890. By the same staff a remarkable Theologisches Hilfslexikon has been issued, in 1894, in 2 vols. In these two volumes are given (1) a chronological table of all important events in religious history, (2) an ecclesiastical calendar, arranging under every day in the year all important religious events which happened thereon, (3) synchronistic tables of Biblical history, (4) a lexicon to the Greek N.T., (5) a lexicon to the Hebrew O.T., (6) a gazetteer to church history, (7) a lexicon of the statistics of the Protestant churches of Germany, (8) statistical tables of the several religions and Christian sects, (9) statistics of the philanthropies of all churches, (10) various liturgical tables, (11) various tables of information useful to ministers.

Jackson, S. Macauley, editor, Concise Dictionary of Religious Knowledge and Gazetteer; associate editors, Talbot Wilson Chambers and Frank Hugh Foster, 2nd and revised edition,

1 vol. 4to, New York 1891.

Schaff, Philip, and S. Macauley Jackson, A Religious Encyclopædia, or Dictionary of Biblical, historical, doctrinal, and practical theology based on the Real-Encyklopædie of Herzog, Plitt and Hauck, together with an Encyclopædia of Living Divines and Christian Workers of all denominations in Europe and America, 3rd edit. revised, 4 vols. 4to, 1891, Funk & Wagnalls.

# (2.) Reviews, Magazines, and Year Books.

Note.—Only serials which are still issuing are named, as guides to the current opinion of the several theological schools.

Theologische Quartalschrift, from 1819. [Edited by the Roman Catholic Professors at Tübingen.]

Theologische Studien und Kritiken, eine Zeitschrift f. d. gesammte Gebiet der Theologie, from 1828, Hamburg and Gotha. [Quarterly:

liberal Lutheran.]

Bibliotheca Sacra, and American Biblical Repository, Andover, U.S.A., commenced in 1844, and still issuing. [Quarterly: Congregational: Biblical Repository, 1st series, 1831, 2nd series, 1839; Bibliotheca Sacra, 1843; Bibliotheca Sacra and American Biblical Repository, 1844.]

London Quarterly, commenced in 1853, and still issuing. [Wesleyan.] Zeitschrift für wissenschaftliche Theologie, from 1858, Leipsic.

[Quarterly: Hegelian.]

Der Beweis des Glaubens, from 1865, Gütersloh. [Monthly:

conservative Lutheran.

Revue de Théologie et de Philosophie et Compte-Rendu des principales publications scientifiques, from 1868, Lausanne. [Bi-monthly: liberal Swiss.]

Church Quarterly, commenced in 1875, and still issuing. [Anglican.] Theologische Literaturzeitung, from 1876, Leipsic, 4to. [Fortnightly:

Ritschlian.

Zeitschrift für katholische Theologie, from 1877, Innsbruck.

[Quarterly: Roman Catholic.]

The Presbyterian Review, from 1880 to 1889; The Presbyterian and Reformed Review, from 1890, New York. [Quarterly.]
Theologischer Jahresbericht, from 1882, Leipsic. [Annual: liberal

Lutheran.

The Jewish Quarterly, from 1889, Nutt; Macmillan.

The Critical Review of Theological and Philosophical Literature, from 1891, T. & T. Clark. [Quarterly: interdenominational.]

Zeitschrift für Theologie und Kirche, from 1891, Freiburg and Leipsic.

[Bi-monthly: Ritschlian.]

The New World, a quarterly review of religion, ethics, and theology, from 1892, Boston and New York. [Unitarian.]

Neue kirchliche Zeitschrift, from 1892, Leipsic. [Monthly: liberal

Lutheran.

Neue Jahrbücher für deutsche Theologie, from 1892, Bonn. [Quarterly: liberal Lutheran.]

Revue Internationale de Théologie, from 1893, Bonn. [Quarterly: Old Catholic.]

# (3.) Serial Works on Several Branches of Theology. (Compare § 73 (10).)

The Bampton Lectures. [Delivered annually in the University of Oxford, commenced in 1780, and still issuing.]

1780. James Bandinel, The Peculiar | 1782. Robert Holmes, On the Doctrines of Christianity. | Prophecies and Testimony

1781. Timothy Neve, Jesus Christ the Saviour of the World and Redeemer of Mankind. 1782. ROBERT HOLMES, On the Prophecies and Testimony of John the Baptist and the Parallel Prophecies of Jesus Christ. 1783. John Cobb, An Enquiry after Happiness: Natural Religion, the

Gospel, etc.

1784. Jos. White, A Comparison of Christianity and Mohammedanism in their History, their Evidence, and their Effects.

1785. RALPH CHURTON, On the Prophecies respecting the Destruction of

Jerusalem.

- 1786. George Croft, The Use and Abuse of Reason; Objections against Inspiration considered; the Authority of the Ancient Fathers examined, etc.
- 1787. WILLIAM HAWKINS, On Scripture Mysteries.
- 1788. RICHARD SHEPHERD, Ground and Credibility of theChristian Religion.

1789. EDWARD TATHAM, The Chart and Scale of Truth, 2 vols.

- 1790. HENRY KETT, The Conduct and Opinions of the Primitive Christians, Remarks on Gibbon and withPriestley.
- 1791. ROBERT MORRES, On Faith in

General, etc.

- 1792. John Eveleigh, The Substance, History, and Evidences of our Religion.
- 1793. WILLIAMSON. TheJAMES Truth, Inspiration, Authority, and Evidence of the Scriptures considered and defended.

1794. Thomas Wintle, The Expediency, Prediction, and Accomplishment of the Christian Redemption

illustrated.

1795. Daniel Veysie, The Doctrine of Atonement illustrated and defended.

1796. Robert Gray, The Principles upon which the Reformation of the Church of England was established.

1797. W. FINCH, The Objection of Infidel Historians and other Writers against Christianity considered.

1798. CHARLES HENRY HALL, Fulness of Time; or the Steps by which Almighty God gradually prepared the Way for the Introduction and Promulgation of the Gospel.

1799. WILLIAM BARROW, Answers to some Popular Objections against the Necessity or Credibility of the Chris-

tian Revelation.

The Divine 1800. G. RICHARDS, Origin of Prophecy illustrated and defended.

- 1801. GEORGE STANLEY FABER, Horæ Mosaicæ; or a View of the Mosaical Records, with Respect to their Coincidence with Profane Antiquity, their Internal Credibility, and their Connexion with Christianity, 2 vols. 2nd edit. 1818.
- 1802. George FREDERICK NOTT.  $Religious\ Enthusiasm.$ (This course was directed against Wesley and Whitfield.)
- 1803. John Farrer, On the Mission and Character of Christ, and on the Beatitudes.
- 1804. RICHARD LAWRENCE, An Attempt to Illustrate those Articles of the Church of England which the Calvinists improperly consider as Calvinistical.

1805. EDWARD NARES, A View of the Evidences of Christianity at the Close of the Pretended Age of Reason.

1806. J. Brown, The Infancy of Human Nature.

1807. THOMAS LE MESURIER, The Nature and Guilt of Schism considered with a Particular Reference to the Principles of the Reformation.

1808. J. Penrose, An Attempt to prove the Truth of Christianity from the Wisdom displayed in its Original Establishment, and from the History of False and Corrupted Systems of Religion.

1809. J. B. S. CARWITHEN, A View of the Brahminical Religion in its Confirmation of the Truth of the Sacred History, and in its Influence on the Moral Character.

1810. T. FALCONER, Certain Principles in Evanson's "Dissonance of the Four generally received Evangelists, etc." examined.

1811. J. BIDLAKE, The Truth and Consistency of Divine Revelation, with some Remarks on the Contrary Extremes of Infidelity and Enthusiasm.

1812. RICHARD MANT, An Appeal to the Gospel; or, an Inquiry into the Justice of the Charge, alleged by the Methodists and other Objectors, that the Gospel is not preached by the National Clergy.

1813. J. Collinson, A Key to the Writings of the Principal Fathers of the Christian Church who flourished during the First Three Centuries.

1814. WILLIAM VAN MILDERT, An Inquiry into the General Principles of Scripture Interpretation.

1815. REGINALD HEBER, The Personality and Office of the Christian Comforter asserted and explained.

1816. John Hume Spry, Christian Unity doctrinally and historically

considered.

1817. John MILLER, TheDivine Authority of Holy Scripture asserted, from its Adaptation to the Real State of Human Nature,

1818. CHARLES ABEL MOYSEY, The Doctrines of the Unitarians examined as opposed to the Church of England.

1819. HECTOR DAVIES MORGAN, A Compressed View of the Religious Principles and Practices of the Age; or, a Trial of the Chief Spirits that are in the World by the Standard of the Scriptures.

1820. Godfrey Faussett, The Claims of the Established Church to Exclusive Attachment and Support, and the Dangers which menace her from

Schism and Indifference.

1821. John Jones, The Moral Ten-dency of Divine Revelation asserted and illustrated.

1822. RICHARD WHATELY, The Use and Abuse of Party-feeling in

Matters of Religion.

1823. C. GODDARD, The Mental Condition necessary to a Due Inquiry into Religious Evidence, stated and exemplified.

1824. JOHN JOSIAS CONYBEARE, An Attempt to trace the History and ascertain the Limits of the Secondary and Spiritual Interpretation of

Scripture.

1825. George Chandler, The Scheme of Divine Revelation considered principally in its Connexion with the Progress and Improvement of Human Society.

1826. WILLIAM VAUX, The Benefits annexed to a Participation in the Two Christian Sacraments of Baptism and the Lord's Supper.

1827. HENRY HART MILMAN, Character and Conduct of the Apostles, considered as an Evidence

of Christianity.

1828. Thomas Horne, The Religious Necessity of the Reformation asserted, and the Extent to which it was carried in the Church of England vindicated. 1829. Edward Burton, The Heresies

of the Apostolic Age.

1830. HENRY SOAMES, The Doctrines of the Anglo-Saxon Church.

1831. T. W. LANCASTER, The Popular Evidence of Christianity stated and explained.

1832. RENN DICKSON HAMPDEN, The Scholastic Philosophy considered in its Relation to Christian Theology.

1833. Fred. Nolan, The Analogy of Revelation and Science established.

1834. No appointment.

1835. No appointment.

1836. CHARLES ATMORE OGILVIE, The Divine Glory manifested in the Conduct and Discourses of our Lord.

1837. THOMAS STUART LYLE VOGAN, The Principal Objections against the Doctrine of the Trinity, and a Portion of the Evidence on which that Doctrine is received by the Catholic Church reviewed.

WOODGATE, The 1838. HENRY A. Authoritative Teaching of the Church shown to be in Conformity with Scripture, Analogy, and the Moral

Constitution of Man.
1839. WILLIAM D. CONYBEARE, An Analytical Examination of the Character, etc., of the Christian Fathers during the Ante-Nicene Period.

1840. EDWARD HAWKINS, An Enquiry into the Connected Uses of the Principal Means of attaining

Christian Truth.

1841. SAMUEL WILBERFORCE. (No lectures delivered, owing to a domestic affliction.)

1842. James Garbett, Christ, as Prophet, Priest, and King; being Vindication of the Church of England from Theological Novelties.

1843. Anthony Grant, The Past and Prospective Extension of the Gospel by Missions to the Heathen. 2nd

edit. 1845.

1844. RICHARD WILLIAM JELF, An Inquiry into the Means of Grace, their Mutual Connexion and Combined Use, with Especial Reference to the Church of England.

1845. Charles ABEL HEURTLEY,

Justification.

1846. Augustus Short, The Witness of the Spirit with our Spirit.

1847. WALTER AUGUSTUS SHIRLEY, The Supremacy of Holy Scripture. (This course was not completed, owing to the death of the lecturer.)

1848. Edward Garrard Marsh, The Christian Doctrine of Sanctification considered.

1849. RICHARD MICHELL, The Nature and Comparative Value of the Christian Evidences considered gener-

1850. EDWARD MEYRICK GOULBURN. The Doctrine of the Resurrection of the Same Body as taught in Holy

Scripture.

1851, HENRY BRISTOW WILSON, The Communion of Saints: an Attempt to illustrate the True Principles of Christian Union.

1852. Joseph Esmond Riddle, The Natural History of Infidelity and Superstition in contrast with Christian

Faith.

1853. WILLIAM THOMSON, The Atoning Work of Christ, viewed in Relation to some Current Theories.

1854. HON. SAMUEL WALDEGRAVE, New Testament Millenarianism; or, the Kingdom and Coming of Christ, as taught by Himself and His Apostles.

1855. J. E. Bode, The Absence of Precision in the Formularies of the Church of England Scriptural, and suitable to a State of Probation.

1856. Edward A. LITTON, Mosaic Dispensation considered as Introductory to Christianity.

1857. WILLIAM EDWARD JELF. Christian Faith, Comprehensive, not Partial; Definite, not Uncertain.

1858. H. LONGUEVILLE MANSEL, The Limits of Religious Thought ex-

amined, 5th edit. 1867.

1859. George Rawlinson, The Historical Evidences of the Scripture Records, stated anew, with Special Reference to the Doubts and Discoveries of Modern Times, 2nd edit. 1860.

1860. James Augustus Hessey, Sunday: its Origin, History, and

Present Obligation.

1861. JOHN SANDFORD, The Mission and Extension of the Church at Home.

1862. ADAM STOREY FARRAR, A Critical History of Free Thought in Reference to the Christian Religion.

1863. John Hannah, The Relation between the Divine and Human Elements in Holy Scripture.

1864. THOMAS DEHANY BERNARD, The Progress of Doctrine in the

New Testament, 2nd edit. 1866. 1865. James B. Mozley, Miracles, 4th edit. 1883.

1866. HENRY PARRY LIDDON, The Divinity of Christ, 13th edit. 1889. 1867. E. Garbett, Dogmatic Faith.

1868. G. Moberly, The Administra-tion of the Holy Spirit in the Body of Christ.

1869. R. PAYNE SMITH, Prophecy a Preparation for Christ, 2nd edit.

1870. WILLIAM J. IRONS, Christianity as taught by St. Paul, 2nd edit. 1876.

1871. George H. Curteis, Dissent in its Relation to the Church of England, 2nd edit. 1873. 1872. J. R. T. EATON, The Perman-

ence of Christianity.

1873. ISAAC GREGORY SMITH, Characteristics of Christian Morality.

1874. STANLEY LEATHES, The Religion of Christ, its Historic and Literary Development Evidence of its Origin. 1875. W. Jackson, The Doctrine of

Retribution, 3rd edit. 1884.

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# PART II.

INTRODUCTION TO THE SPECIFIC THEOLOGICAL SCIENCES.



# DIVISION I.

#### NATURAL THEOLOGY

§ 16.

NAME, DEFINITION, AND PROBLEM OF NATURAL THEOLOGY.

ROM the study of theology in general we now turn to the study of the particular branches of theology, and we begin with Natural Theology. The primary duty is again to define terms.

Like the term theology itself, Natural Theology — the English equivalent of the ancient theologia naturalis already employed by Varro, according to Augustine—is used in a wider and a narrower sense. In the narrower signification, following the analogy of the old scholastic terms, theologia dogmatica, theologia moralis, theologia biblica, -natural theology stands, in strict accord with etymology, for the doctrine of God, His existence and attributes, as given in nature, just as its analogues stood for the doctrine of God as taught in the Church, in the conscience, in the Bible. In the wider sense, natural theology stands for all the religious knowledge, treated systematically, obtainable by the ordinary faculties of man, apart from special divine revelation. In this wider use natural theology is contrasted with revealed theology, the religious knowledge, treated systematically, obtainable from exceptional revelations. As an equivalent for natural theology in the wider sense, some have employed the name rational

theology, and some philosophical theology, and some speculative theology, the scientific treatment of the religious knowledge attainable by the reason as such; and these designations are not without their value, although there is some advantage in emphasising the objective source of the knowledge,—nature, rather than the subjective instrument in its acquisition,—reason, inference, speculation. Preference is also given to the term natural theology as harmonising more with the other leading subdivisions, each of which directs attention to the external and objective source. Natural theology, then, adopting the wider sense as more convenient for our purpose, and as affording the requisite contrast with the other branches of theology, is the science of natural religion, that is, of the knowledge of the supernatural given in nature.

It should be definitely stated, however, that this term Nature is by no means exact. By Nature in this connection is meant the general constitution of things. But there is an unavoidable ambiguity about this use. By the accurate Christian thinker, every fact in the present system of things would be referred in the last resort to the supernatural, and, on the other hand, prophecy and miracle, which are commonly instanced as examples of the supernatural, would be regarded as strictly natural, if by natural is meant the actual course of the universe, and not that course as provisionally delineated by the limited faculties of man. Natural and supernatural are, after all, useful but unscientific designations. They are not exclusive, like "black" and "white," but only fairly expressive, like "animal" and "vegetable," unfortunately failing in precision just where precision is most needed. X plus Y, the supernatural plus the natural, cannot be given as the unanalysable formula for the universe, because some X is Y, some supernatural is natural, and all Y is X, all natural is supernatural. Even in popular speech we sometimes speak of the Book of Nature as the Book of God, and sometimes as contrasted with God's Book. So, in scientific nomenclature, an event may be natural or supernatural according to the point of view. Seen as God sees, the Incarnation, for example, may be strictly natural, part of the constitution of things, whereas seen as man sees, the revelation of God in

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human form appears altogether supernatural. It is difficult, however, to dispense with these highly convenient terms, nature and natural; and so long as the necessary limitations, the unavoidable ambiguities, of the words are recognised, they may be used with advantage, and without the possibility of the jugglery with which they often have been employed.

Natural theology, then, is the science of the supernatural as disclosed in nature, that is to say, as given in the present constitution of things and apprehended by the ordinary faculties of man.

This being the definition of the name selected, the problem of natural theology immediately opens. The problem is to ascertain and treat in an orderly and exhaustive manner all that nature can teach concerning the existence of God and the spiritual relations of man. Be it observed, however, that nature is used for more than the physical universe. Nature includes the physical universe, and the mind of man, and the history of the human race, outside of Biblical and Christian history. Thus natural theology is the science of religion as given in nature, meaning by nature the physical universe, the human mind, and the course of purely human history. In other words, religion being fundamentally human appropriation of spiritual revelation, natural theology is the science of the revelations of nature, using both nature and revelation in the broad senses already explained.

# § 17.

#### UTILITY OF THE STUDY OF NATURAL THEOLOGY.

The aim, then, of Natural Theology being to ascertain and affiliate all that nature can teach concerning God and our relations to a supernal world, it is manifest, first, that if there be such a science, it would crown all the other sciences, which confessedly deal with the world of sense, by disclosing a world above sense Such a science would unspeakably enlarge our horizon. Beyond the confines of the visible universe, a universe would be revealed with other laws and

with another destiny. The blue sky would become symbolic of truer heavens. Man would cease to be the supreme intelligence. All the sciences would receive an apotheosis. Mathematics would add to its knowledge of number and dimension, knowledge of Him who has deliberately bound His thoughts by the limitations of time and space. Physics would tell of an Infinite Will by whose movement force originated. The molecular arrangements of chemistry would become the regulated volitions of Deity. Biology would bear its testimony to the Life which is the light of men. An unfolding divine purpose would appear in the geological upheavals and depressions. Corresponding to the microcosmic mind of man a macrocosmic Divine Intelligence would manifest itself. Sociology would become the history of an omniscient Providence. In a word, every science would be intercalated in the biography of Deity, thus receiving a greatly increased dignity.

SECONDLY, like all science, natural theology bestows upon the student the pleasures of reasoning and investigation. Lord Brougham very justly remarks in his Discourse on Natural Theology, giving one series of examples out of many, "To trace design in the productions and in the operations of nature, or in those of the human understanding, is, in the strictest sense of the word, generalisation, and consequently produces the same pleasure with the generalisations of physical and psychological science. . . Thus, if it is pleasing to find that the properties of two curves so exceedingly unlike as the ellipse and the hyperbola closely resemble each other, or that appearances so dissimilar as the motion of the moon and the fall of an apple from the tree are different forms of the same fact, it affords a pleasure of the same kind to discover that the light of the glow-worm and the song of the nightingale are both provisions of nature for the same end of attracting the animal's mate, and continuing its kind —that the peculiar law of attraction pervading all matter, the magnitude of the heavenly bodies, the planes they move in, and the directions of their courses, are all so contrived as to make their mutual actions, and the countless disturbances thence arising, all secure a perpetual stability to the system which no other arrangement could attain. It is a highly

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pleasing contemplation of the self-same kind with those of the other sciences to perceive everywhere design and adaptation—to discover uses even in things apparently the most accidental—to trace this so constantly, that when peradventure we cannot find the purpose of nature, we never for a moment suppose there was none, but only that we have hitherto failed in finding it out—and to arrive at the intimate persuasion that all seeming disorder is harmony—all chance, design—and that nothing is made in vain; nay, things which in our ignorance we had overlooked as unimportant or even complained of as evils, fill us afterwards with contentment and delight, when we find they are subservient to the most important and beneficial uses. Thus inflammation and the generation of matter in a wound we find to be the effort which nature makes to produce new flesh and effect the cure; the opposite hinges of the valves in the veins and arteries are the means of enabling the blood to circulate; and so of innumerable other arrangements of the animal economy."

Then, THIRDLY, natural theology is a science of peculiar interest and instructiveness. For let the nature of its generalisations be considered, relating as they do to the evidences in nature of a supernatural origin and providence, with their corollaries of a future and more blessed life. Do not the conclusions of natural theology excel in sublimity? What grander studies are there than the creation of things, their divine preservation, and "the exquisite skill," to adopt the familiar words of Paley, "that contrived the wings and beak and feet of insects invisible to the naked eye, and that lighted the lamp of day, and launched into space comets a thousand times larger than the earth, whirling a million times swifter than a cannon-ball, and burning with a heat a thousand centuries could not quench"? Again, does not the universality of the evidence on which natural theology rests, impart a special interest to the study? Inferences are insisted on which are not only true for the Christian, but for every man. "The light that lighteth every man" is peculiarly the theme of natural theology. All times, all places, all races, have their part and lot in this science. Here there is catholic truth pre-eminently, truth believed in "semper,

ubique et ab omnibus"; and hence there is here interest as universal as the evidence. So much for the purely scientific pleasure which comes from the contemplation and investigation of the facts belonging to this section of knowledge; but it should not be forgotten that there is a practical as well as a scientific interest in the study of natural theology. The truths taught have a bearing upon our lives. Natural theology may enable every walk through field or forest, every hour with telescope or microscope, every glance within and every look without, to be a walk with God, purifying, in-

spiring, and enlarging the soul.

FOURTHLY, natural theology prepares the way by its conclusions for Christianity. The Biblical revelations are neither addressed to those who are disbelievers in the divine existence, nor doubters. The revelations made to or by patriarchs, prophets, and apostles all appeal to an earlier knowledge of God. Long before Paul directed attention to the unknown God whom the Athenians worshipped, Moses commenced the Book of the Genesis by saying, as if his words required no prior reasoning or explanation, "In the beginning God." This method is characteristic of the revelation in both law and gospel. It is a Deity already known and feared who makes a covenant at Sinai. Even at the Burning Bush it is revealed to Moses what God is, not that He is. Similarly the experiences of the new birth presuppose the experiences of the natural birth. This is the divine method at all times and in all places. God meets man in common life before He meets him at Sinai or Calvary. Christianity cannot present its miracles until natural theology has emphasised the universal order. Prophecy cannot be adjudged supernatural until the limitations of the natural have been appreciated. Before revealed theology can minister to the salvation and satisfaction of man, natural theology must emphasise human shortcomings and need. Or, turning to the Bible itself, it is noteworthy how the Scriptures insist again and again on the manifestation of God in nature as preparing the way for superior revelations. "The heavens declare the glory of God; and the firmament showeth His handywork. Day unto day uttereth speech, and night unto night showeth knowledge. UTILITY. 155

There is no speech nor language where their voice is not heard;" so it is said in the Nineteenth Psalm. Or listen to another Psalm: "Understand, ye brutish among the people: and ye fools, when will ye be wise? He that planted the ear, shall He not hear? He that formed the eye, shall He not see? He that chastiseth the nations, shall not He correct? He that teacheth man knowledge, shall not He know?" Or hear the words of Paul at Lystra: "Sirs, why do ye these things? We also are men of like passions with you, and preach unto you that ye should turn from these vanities unto the living God, which made heaven and earth, and the sea, and all things that are therein: Who in times past suffered all nations to walk in their own ways. Nevertheless, He left not Himself without witness, in that He did good, and gave us rain from heaven, and fruitful seasons, filling our hearts with food and gladness." The conclusions of natural theology were equally the basis of Paul's appeal at Athens, when he said: "God, that made the world. and all things therein, seeing that He is Lord of heaven and earth, dwelleth not in temples made with hands; neither is worshipped with men's hands, as though He needed anything, seeing He giveth to all life and breath and all things; and hath made of one blood all nations of men for to dwell on all the face of the earth, and hath determined the times before appointed, and the bounds of their habitation; that they should seek the Lord, if haply they might feel after Him, and find Him, though He be not far from any one of us: For in Him we live and move and have our being; as certain also of your own poets have said, 'For we also are His offspring.' Forasmuch then as we are the offspring of God, we ought not to think that the Godhead is like unto gold, or silver, or stone, graven by art and man's device." Quite characteristically also Paul writes to the Romans as a preface to his statement of the gospel: "The invisible things of Him from the creation of the world are clearly seen, being understood by the things that are made, even His eternal power and Godhead; so that they are without excuse: because that when they knew God, they glorified Him not as God, neither were thankful."

FIFTHLY, natural theology supplies the Christian advocate with many valuable weapons. As Bishop Butler has shown once for all, in his immortal "Analogy," there is a likeness between the natural world and the world of revelation in the difficulties they each present, and the objections taken by many against Christianity equally lie against nature. Scripture confronts us with the idea that our present life is a probation, that is to say, a state of trial and discipline, in reality natural theology has no other message to deliver. Let but the varied harmony be seen between the realms of nature and revelation, and revelation straightway becomes more credible. The natural evidence for immortality renders the teaching of the Bible as to a future life more easy of belief. The providence seen in history prepares the mind for the providence seen in Scripture. There are innumerable points of contact between the truths of Christianity and the truths of natural religion; and in these days of conflict between the teachers of natural and religious science, it is just the truths of natural theology which require careful restatement and illustration; for these truths once conceded, the way would be prepared for the more exalted and specific truths of Christianity. For,

SIXTHLY, natural theology declares its own inadequacy to meet the deepest needs of man, and thus gives an invaluable auxiliary testimony to the Christian advocate. The evidence is wide, and can only be hinted at. The evidence consists in a series of contrasts which natural theology presents, but is unable to resolve. For example, reason demands that the Infinite God be infinite in perfection, but natural theology shows many a spot upon the ermine of strict justice and goodness, judging humanly, for virtue is often its own reward alone, and misery untold belies a complete happiness. Again, nature discloses the pain of conscious failure in the attainment of ideal bliss, whilst nevertheless it certainly awakens the longing after perfection. Again, that man stands in need of a regeneration nature teaches, but not what that regeneration is. Again, nature can show that man cries out for fellowship with God, being restless without worship; and nature can show that the more moral man becomes the louder

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is the cry for Deity; but nature cannot bestow rest of soul. Yet again, the probability of a future life nature can demonstrate, but nature is silent as to the manner and laws of the life to come. Or yet again, to select one great instance of necessity frequently cited, nature paints strongly man's sin and need of forgiveness, but it has no suggestions to offer as to how God can justly forgive, and sinful man be justly forgiven. As said Dr. Chalmers, with his characteristic pungency and flow: "Bishop Butler speaks of Christianity as a supplement to natural religion; and it may readily be thought that the more which natural religion discovers, the less may Christianity have to supplement. But, in truth, it is all the other way. For let us only consider what the doctrines are on which the natural theology of science might possibly cast a greater light than the natural theology of conscience. Does it multiply the proofs for the existence of God? then it only enhances the obligation under which we lie, of giving most solemn and respectful entertainment to any message that bears upon it the signature of a likely revelation from Himself. Or does it tell more forcibly and fully of His character? then surely it will but strengthen His claim of being listened to when He speaketh, and believed in when He makes known His ways and His judgments to the children Or does it look on the divine economy under which we sit, as having in it the nature of a divine government, where God is the rightful sovereign, and we the rightful subjects of His authority ?--does it look on the jurisprudence which this relation implies as a reality? then all we ask is but a philosophic steadfastness and consistency at its hands, that it may look at the question, 'How shall God, in the high office of a lawgiver, deal with men, the undoubted transgressors of His law?' as a reality also, not to be blinked but disposed of. Or, by help of its sounder ethics, does it lead us to regard His truth and justice as no less the distinct and integral characteristics of the Deity, than are His benevolence and wisdom? this does not lay the perplexity, but only makes it all the more helpless and embarrassing; for how shall a God with such attributes leave either the sins of our history unreckoned with, or the sanctities of His own

nature without a vindication? To make clear the terms of the dilemma is one thing, to solve the dilemma is another. Natural theology achieves but the first. The second is beyond her. She can tell the difficulty; but she cannot resolve it." 1

SEVENTHLY, natural theology may aid devotion. "What delight can be more elevating, more truly worthy of a rational creature's enjoyment, than to feel, wherever we tread the paths of scientific inquiry, new evidence springing up around our footsteps — new traces of divine intelligence and power meeting our eye! We are never alone; at least, like the old Roman, we are never less alone than in our solitude. We walk with the Deity." <sup>2</sup>

## § 18.

#### DIVISION OF NATURAL THEOLOGY.

Like all sciences, Natural Theology, which is the knowledge of the supernal relations of man as given in Nature, and as studied scientifically, consists of data and of inductions. Hence follow its two primary divisions, viz. first, the data. and second, the inductions, of natural theology. The data of natural theology are best arranged under the heads of the several divisions of natural science, as given in § 10. With respect to the inductions of natural theology, some have thought that these inductions are identical with the socalled theistic argument, or the natural grounds for believing in the existence of a personal Deity. But the data of natural theology permit of valid inductions of a much wider scope than that of the being and attributes of one God. By common consent the acquaintance man has been able to make with the facts and laws of the supramundane universe has enabled him to classify the entire results of his inquiry under the follow-

 $<sup>^{1}</sup>$  Select Works of Dr. Chalmers, edited by William Hanna, Edinburgh 1856, vol. vii. pp. 123, 124.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Brougham, A Discourse of Natural Theology, 3rd edit., London 1835, p. 196.

ing heads, viz. the doctrines of God, of spirits, of the world, of man, of evil, of salvation from evil, of the societies of the redeemed, and of the last things. There is much difference of opinion as to the collocation or subordination of these several classes, but there is unanimity as to the fact of these doctrines being exhaustive. Natural theology gives information of a more or less important kind concerning each of these classes, and hence they may be conveniently used in arranging the inferences of this branch of science. The order of the several classes will be determined as usual by the law of advance from the simpler to the more complex.

However, as the more complete scheme of Biblical sciences suggests (see § 29), Natural Theology, being Natural Religion treated scientifically, and Natural Religion being fundamentally knowledge by man of a supernal world as revealed in Nature, the whole scheme of division would be—

I. The Introduction to Natural Theology, or the study of the subsidiary sciences necessary to the interpretation of Nature, or, as it might be otherwise expressed, the means for obtaining the data of Natural Theology. Such an introduction would embrace all the sciences of the physical universe, of the mind of man, and of the history of the race.

II. THE DATA OF NATURAL THEOLOGY, or the knowledge of the supernatural, as given in--

- 1. Mathematics.
- 2. Physics.
- 3. Chemistry.
- 4. Astronomy.
- 5. Biology.
- 6. Geology.
- 7. Mental Science.
- 8. Sociology.

# III. THE INDUCTIONS OF NATURAL THEOLOGY, viz. :-

- 1. Doctrinally regarded (Natural Dogmatics)—
  - (1) Concerning God (Natural Theology Proper).
  - (2) ,, Spirits (Natural Pneumatology).
  - (3) ,, the World (Natural Cosmology).
  - (4) ,, Man (Natural Anthropology).
  - (5) ,, Evil (Natural Ponerology).
  - (6) ,, Salvation from Evil (Natural Soteriology).
    (7) ,, Associations of the Saved (Natural Ecclesiology).
  - (8) ,, the Last Things (Natural Eschatology).
- 2. Ethically regarded (the Ethics of Natural Theology, or Natural Ethics).

At present so elaborate a classification is only useful as an ideal—an ideal, however, to which future inquiries will doubtless rapidly approximate. Nor at present can the many good books available be catalogued under such a classification without some confusion. It will also be observed that as yet—let the reader refer to §§ 27–69 in illustration—the study of the several specific sciences of natural theology have not been carried to such a point as to call for distinct consideration here. Nevertheless, as investigation proceeds, there is reason to believe that the treatment of Natural Theology in such a book as this must divide itself, as in the case of Biblical Theology, into A. Natural Theology Generally Considered, and B. Natural Theology Specifically Considered.

#### § 19.

#### HISTORY OF THE STUDY OF NATURAL THEOLOGY.

Nor is the study of natural theology by any means unexplored ground. Many books have been written upon the religious teachings of nature. Reflections upon the spiritual aspects of the universe are as old apparently as literature, and almost as old as human contemplation. Nevertheless, in tracing the principal phases of the history of natural theology, we are not concerned with the entire range of works which treat of natural religion. Natural theology deals, it is true, with the knowledge of God, and of human relations with God as far as that knowledge can be gained from the natural world; but natural theology deals with that knowledge in scientific form. Various classes of investigations into natural religion are straightway cleared from our path by such a definition.

For, first, be it observed, we are not concerned with the literature of natural religion itself, but of natural religion as scientifically treated. The religious contemplations of poet or philosopher only enter into our plan as they form the data for orderly and connected treatment. However interesting the

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religious myths of earlier times, or the religious imaginings of later days, the labours of Hercules or the musings of Wordsworth, they are all excluded from our present view as having no pretension to be scientific.

Secondly, we have nothing to do with works upon theosophy as they have been called. Amongst the mystics, as those are called who pretend to learn all about things divine by their peculiar faculty of contemplation, there has usually been one section, who, to adopt Alfred Vaughan's 1 classification, have not been theopathetic, as he names those who receive divine manifestations whilst they are mentally passive as they believe; nor theurgic, those who claim to obtain supernatural powers by contemplation; but theosophic, capable as they think of learning all about God and His works by means of a special vision Theosophy is neither philosophy nor theology; of their own. for, whilst philosophy investigates the ideas given in reason, according to logical processes, theosophy has nothing to do with dialectics, deriving its knowledge, as it believes, from direct and immediate vision; and whilst theology brings the methods of science to bear upon all varieties of religious data, theosophy receives its conclusions as well as its facts from contemplation alone. Theosophy has undoubtedly played a considerable part in the world, from the days of the Delphic oracle to those of Madame Blavatsky; the Neo-Platonists were theosophists; so were many of the mediæval mystics; so were Paracelsus and Behmen and Swedenborg. But in this place we are not concerned with theosophy, the divine in nature as disclosed to an individual apprehension, but with natural theology, the science of the religious facts of nature as generalised by logical processes and open to all who care to study them.

Nor, thirdly, have we even to do with the history of any branch of natural theology, such as the argument from design or the natural argument for the immortality of the soul. Interesting as it is to find the argument from design, for example, stated almost as clearly by Socrates and Aristotle, Cicero and Seneca, as by Paley and Chalmers, M'Cosh

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Hours with the Mystics, London, 2nd edit. 1860, vol. i. p. 27; 5th edit. 1888.

and Janet, we are nevertheless not concerned with the development of any single section of natural theology. What we have to do is to characterise the leading epochs in the investigation of natural theology, their causes and their effects.

Natural theology, in the exact sense of the words, has always sprung into life whenever, in the revolt against atheism or authority, the need has been strongly felt for presenting the whole of Christian truth in reasoned form. It is therefore with no surprise that we observe the lapse of centuries in the Christian Church before its appearance. The necessity of contending earnestly for particular doctrines of God, or Christ, or man, everywhere seen before the days of Charlemagne, gave birth to many a statement of the natural evidence for the being of God or the sinfulness of man; but just as the times were not ripe for a systematic study of the truths of Scripture, they were also immature for a systematic study of the truths of nature. Even in the Scholastic Age, when systematisation had become a passion, many years passed, the epoch had almost reached its decadence, before a work on natural theology appeared, not unintelligibly, seeing that the majority of scholastics were quite satisfied with a basis of authority, whether in Scripture or tradition, for their elaborate systems. The question seems scarcely to have occurred to these framers of doctrinal systems, Upon what sound basis does my foundation of authority itself rest? It was, however, a scholastic, but a scholastic who lived after the awakening called the Revival of Learning, RAYMOND DE SABUNDE, who as the father of natural theology introduced a new view of doctrinal method which gave mental repose to many when the belief in ecclesiastical authority had become undermined. Raymond was a professor of medicine, philosophy, and theology at Toulouse early in the fifteenth century, and it would seem that his great pioneer work, his Theologia Naturalis, sive Liber Creaturarum, was finished "in 1436, in the month of February, the sixth day, which was the Sabbath day." 1 The book perhaps is best known by Montaigne's French

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See Kleiber, De Raimundi quem vocant de Sabunde vita et scriptis, Berlin 1856, for all that is discoverable about this man and his one book; also comp. Hallam, Literature of Europe.

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translation and by Montaigne's essay, included in his collected Essays, entitled "Apology for Raymond Sebonde." The spirit of the book may be gathered from the following extract; the translation is Hallam's:—"Two books have been given us by God: namely, that of the created universe, or the book of nature; the other, the book of Holy Scripture. The first was given to man from the beginning, when the universe was framed, since every creature is but a certain letter written by the finger of God, and out of the mass of creatures, as from many letters, the book is composed. To this book man belongs, and is the chief letter in it. . . . But the second book of Scripture was given to man subsequently, and this for the insufficiency of the first book, since man, as blind, knew not how to read in the first. Still, the first book of creation is common to all, while clerks only know how to read the other." There is much in the book worth reading to-day, and the statement of the theistic argument, which occupies forty-five chapters, is admirable; so are the references to human duty and retribution; but the method is pushed to extremes; there is no clear recognition of the limits of the rational method; an attempt is even made to prove by the revelations in nature such characteristic revelations of the New Testament as the Trinity and the new birth.

The agitations of the sixteenth century were unfavourable to the study of natural theology. It was the age of great commotions, because the age of great inspirations. It was the age of Luther and Galileo, of the massacre of St. Bartholomew and the martyrdom of Giordano Bruno. Natural science and the Bible had each their resurrection, but their advocates had quite enough to do in separately fighting the Inquisition, to think of possible alliance. Such times are days of exaggeration and independence, not of conciliation and moderation. Half a century had to pass after the great struggles of Luther before the awakened thought and life of Europe could become calm.

At the beginning of the seventeenth century, however, two currents of thought are seen to be flowing full and fast side by side. On the one hand there is the great stream of Protestantism, and on the other hand there is the great

stream of natural research, with its two fountainheads of Bacon and Descartes. Are the two streams moving in the same or in contrary directions? For a time the question scarcely arises, theology being content to go its way, and science and philosophy theirs. But before long the Protestant systems are compelled, because of the scepticism of Hobbes and the unsettlement following the Synod of Dort, to declare whether there shall be alliance or defiance, and it soon became evident that the rational methods of procedure could render valuable aid to the cause of theology. Natural theology at once came prominently forward. And, as might have been anticipated,—for the study was peculiarly congenial to the English mind,—natural theology had its new birth in England. The great religious party known as the Cambridge Platonists, and the great scientific party which founded the Royal Society and the Boyle Lectures, prosecuted the study of natural theology most diligently. Many books on the subject appeared, the most prominent of which, in the Cambridge School, were Cumberland's De Legibus Natura, 1672; Cudworth's Intellectual System of the Universe, 1678; More's Immortality of the Soul, 1659, and The Grand Mystery of the Universe, 1662; Bishop Wilkins' treatise Of the Principles and Duties of Natural Religion, 1675 (9th edit. 1734); Ralph Culverwell's Discourse on the Light of Nature, 1652, etc.; John Howe's Living Temple, 1st part, 1675; Stillingfleet's Origines Sacræ, or a Rational Account of the Grounds of Natural and Revealed Religion, 1662; and Hooker's opening books of his great Ecclesiastical Polity, 1676. As has been well said by Gillett, "In the Cambridge Platonic School we meet with a group of writers, which is characterised, notwithstanding distinct and well-marked peculiarities, by a family likeness. Against the intrusion of a radical scepticism, they recognised the necessity of going back of the asserted authority of revealed religion, and its historical evidences, to certain truths fundamental to all religion, and which had been conceded by the greatest minds of the past, because they commended themselves to the reason of all thoughtful men. Some of these writers were distinguished by mystic tendencies; some were pre-eminent as students of the

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ancient philosophy; some, like Wilkins, were competent masters of the best science of their day; but they were led alike, either by their own tastes, or by the controversial scepticism of the time, to take their stand alike on the ground of natural theology, and vindicate much of what they deemed fundamental to Christianity, by similar methods." How widespread and lasting their influence was will presently appear. As fellow-workers from another quarter came the Royal Society and Robert Boyle, the founder of the Boyle Lectures, a few of the most characteristic productions from these sources being-Ward, Philosophical Essay towards an Eviction of the Being and Attributes of God, the Immortality of the Souls of Men, and the Truth and Authority of Scripture, 1652; Kenelm Digby, Of Bodies and of Man's Soul, to Discover the Immortality of Reasonable Souls, 1669; Tillotson, Principles and Duties of Natural Religion, 1674; John Ray, The Wisdom of God Manifested in the Works of Creation, 1st edit. 1691, 8th edit. 1724; William Bates, Considerations on the Existence of God, and of the Immortality of the Soul, 1676; the Physico-Theology and Astro-Theology of William Derham, the former of which reached a sixth edition in 1723, and the latter a third edition in 1719; and the famous Boyle Lectures of Dr. Samuel Clarke, entitled Demonstrations of the Being and Attributes of God, 1704. By all these writers, and a host of others of more or less weight, the truths of natural theology were proclaimed, and their place assigned as a basis and preparation for the truths of revealed theology. Nor should we omit, as a diligent co-worker in this field, the honoured name of Richard Baxter, who in his Reasons of the Christian Religion, published in 1667, gives a large place to the discussion of natural theology, its teachings and its relation to revelation, not even hesitating to say: "There is so much lovely in a Cato, Cicero, Seneca, Antoninus, Epictetus, Plutarch, . . . that it obligeth us not only to love them benevolently, but with much complacence: and as I will learn from nature itself what I can, so also from these students of nature: . . . all that is true and good in their religion, as far as I can discern it, shall be part of mine." Baxter's two treatises, On the Immortality of the Soul, and the Nature of it, and of other Spirits,

1682, also deserve mention; as does Bishop Parker's Demonstration of the Divine Authority of the Law of Nature and of the Christian Religion, published in the preceding year.

So well, however, had the advocates of the exalted merits of natural theology done their work,—carrying their contention indeed to the verge of exaggeration, and certainly tending to conceal the altogether distinct and peculiar claims of the Bible.—that it is not to be wondered at that before long the very weapons forged in defence of Christianity were turned against the specific Christian truths. Soon the truths of natural theology were so emphasised by the Deistic Party as to imply that the distinctive Christian truths were either untrue or unnecessary. If Christian theology contradicted natural theology it was declared untrue, and if it reiterated what had been previously known from nature, it was pronounced unnecessary. Toland availed himself, for example, of the incautious remark of Dr. Whichcote, "that natural religion was eleven parts in twelve of all religion," and published, amongst his many writings, his Nazarenus, or Jewish, Gentile, and Mahometan Christianity, 1718, in which he asserted at once the triviality of the characteristic differences of Judaism, Mahometanism, and Christianity, and the transcendent importance of the law of nature in which these systems agreed. Other prominent freethinkers, as those were called who accentuated natural to the discredit of revealed theology, were Collins, whose views are well seen in his Discourse on the Grounds and Reasons of the Christian Religion, 1724, a book to which, as Collins himself states, thirty-five distinct replies were made by leading Christian thinkers; Woolston, a more serious opponent of revealed truth, especially in his Moderator between an Infidel and an Apostle, and the Controversy between the Author of "The Discourse on the Grounds, etc.," and his Reverend Ecclesiastical Opponents set in a Clear Light, a book apparently which suggested to Strauss his peculiar method of attack on the Gospels; and Tindal, in his Christianity as Old as the Creation, or the Gospel a Republication of the Religion of Nature, 1730, esteemed of sufficient importance to evoke replies from Burnet, Law, Berkeley, HISTORY. 167

Leland, amidst a host of smaller writers. In such writers we see rationalism full-blown, the *lumen nature* constituting the sole criterion of truth.

To these exaggerated claims of the advocates of a theology exclusively natural, the English Churches made Two GREAT REPLIES, the one showing conclusively the insufficiency of natural theology, and the other as conclusively disclosing the insufficiency of the natural theologians. Whilst theoretical perfection was being strenuously claimed for natural theology, its practical incompetence to redeem men was increasingly manifest, and under the polished delivery of moral essays, churches were emptied and souls were perishing. Hence one great reply made by the Churches. The controversies on the sufficiency of natural theology died out, practically disproved, on the magnificent revival of goodness amongst the most degraded which followed the preaching of Whitfield and Wesley. On the other hand, side by side with the practical answer made by aggressive Christian labour, there rose THE CHRISTIAN EVIDENCE SCHOOL, as they are often called, who met the anti-Christian natural theologians on their own ground and vanquished them. Miracles were shown to be more than wonders exaggerated by ignorance or enthusiasm. The natural explanation of prophecy was proved inadequate. The authenticity of the Gospels and the Books of Moses were successfully vindicated. It has been customary of late, it is true, to depreciate the value of this Christian Evidence School, but their only sin was that they wrote for their own age, and not for this. In their own day and generation they wrought hard, long, and well, and rendered very eminent service to the Christian cause. Without mentioning at length the numerous books which appeared in refutation of the several books of Toland, Collins, Woolston, and Tindal,—the first of whom brought down upon himself quite a library upon the importance of Christianity in general, the second a library upon the importance of prophecy, the third created a literature on the miracles of Jesus, and the last arrayed against himself all the strength of the Christian party on the value of revelation,—it will suffice to name several books which form a permanent contribution to Christian knowledge.

One great product of the long deistic controversy was the works of Nathaniel Lardner, especially his Credibility of the Gospel History, published in London in five volumes from 1727-1743. The best edition of Dr. Lardner's works is that by Dr. Andrew Kippis, London 1788, in eleven volumes 8vo, several times reprinted. Though a century and a half old, these writings of Lardner's are still indispensable to the accurate student, and large parts of Paley's popular book on the Christian evidences are little else than an abstract of Lardner. Indeed, the eulogy of Dr. Horne was not extravagant when he said: "In the applause of Dr. Lardner all parties of Christians are united, regarding him as the champion of their common and holy faith. Secker, Porteus, Watson, Tomline, Jortin, Hay, and Paley, of the Anglican Church; Doddridge, Kippis, and Priestley, among the Dissenters; and all foreign Biblical critics, have rendered public homage to his learning, his fairness, and his great merits as a Christian apologist. The candid of the literati of the Romish communion have extolled his labours; and even Morgan and Gibbon, professed unbelievers, have awarded to him the meed of faithfulness and impartiality. By collecting a mass of scattered evidences in favour of the authenticity of the evangelical history, he established a bulwark on the side of truth which infidelity has never presumed to attack." Dr. Thomas Sherlock's Trial of the Witnesses of the Resurrection of Jesus, 1729, was another very able and popular book, which passed through many editions, and may be read with profit and amusement to-day. William Law's Case of Reason, or Natural Religion, Fairly and Fully Stated, 1731, also deserves mention, as well as the several writings of Dr. Samuel Clarke. But the long deistic controversy, with its exaggeration of the importance of natural theology, gave birth to another book of first-class importance, the famous "Analogy" of Bishop Butler. It was in 1732 that Butler presented to Queen Caroline the manuscript of his Analogy of Religion, Natural and Revealed, to the Constitution and Course of Nature, and in 1736 that the first edition was published, in London as a quarto, and in Dublin in two small octavo volumes. The work has been very frequently republished.

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It would be easy to fill pages with the high praises of such competent critics as Sir James Mackintosh, Dr. Reid, Dr. Chalmers, and Bishop Wilson. Says the last justly, as one of the editors of Butler, "The 'Analogy' has fixed the admiration of all competent judges for nearly a century, and will continue to be studied so long as the language in which he wrote endures. The mind of a master pervades it. . . . He takes his place with Bacon and Pascal and Newton, those mighty geniuses who opened new sources of information on the most important subjects, and commanded the love and gratitude of mankind." Written under the exigencies of a prolonged deistic attack, and displaying therefore many a detail of purely temporary interest, the "Analogy" nevertheless opened up a line of argument of perennial force and the widest application. It was something to have so demonstrated the analogy existing between the realms of nature and of grace as to show that there was no halting-place for the deist between Christian belief and utter disbelief; but it was more to have depicted once for all the unity of plan between the kingdoms of nature and revelation as to compel the conviction of their common origin. That Butler expected his book to have both results, is manifest from his own words, when he says, in the eighth chapter of his second part, "This treatise will be, to such as are convinced of religion upon the proof arising out of the two last-mentioned principles (of liberty and necessity), an additional proof, and a confirmation of it; to such as do not admit those principles, an original proof of it, and a confirmation of that proof. Those who believe will here find the scheme of Christianity cleared of objections, and the evidence of it in a peculiar manner strengthened; those who do not believe will at least be shown the absurdity of all attempts to prove Christianity false, the plain, undoubted credibility of it, and, I hope, a good deal more." The book remains as one of the greatest monuments of its age, obscure in style, yet packed in thought, and deserving the honour and study of all ages. It was the last word of its epoch.

The CLOSING YEARS OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY, not in themselves peculiarly favourable to the prosecution of natural

theology, saw, however, a revival of the theological study of nature on one side. This came from a revulsion against the teaching of Hume, who, in a posthumous work published in 1777, entitled Dialogues Concerning Natural Religion, whilst appearing to advocate the cogency of the argument from design for the being of God, really insinuated objections against that argument. This covert attack of Hume's coloured the treatment of natural theology for several decades. Men like Thomas Reid and Dugald Stewart took up the cudgels against Hume, and their influence was great as the leaders of the Scotch school of philosophy. But the great reply was William Paley's, in his Natural Theology, which appeared in 1803, a work which stands even to-day as one of the most lucid and popular statements of the design argument. The materials of much of this work, it is true, were borrowed from a Dutch treatise by a Dr. Bernard Nieuwentyt, published in 1716, and introduced to the English public, in a translation, with the lengthy title, "The Religious Philosopher; or, the Right Use of Contemplating the Creator: I. In the Wonderful Structure of Animal Bodies, and, in particular, Man. II. In the no less Wonderful and Wise Formation of the Elements, and their Various Effects upon Animal and Vegetable Bodies. And III. In the most Amazing Structure of the Heavens, with all its Furniture. Designed for the Conviction of Atheists and Infidels; throughout which all the Late Discoveries in Anatomy, Philosophy, and Astronomy, together with the Various Experiments made use of to illustrate the same, are most copiously handled by that learned mathematician, Dr. Nieuwentyt." The indebtedness of Paley to this book is undisputed; nevertheless, the materials so derived are worked up in a manner all Paley's own. Paley has the honour of the incomparable form of his work. What was confused in the Dutch doctor, Paley made clear; what was tiresome he made impressive; what was halting he made cogent. Paley added very much original matter, and arranged and expressed the whole with his peculiar tact and lucidity. A valuable edition of this work. with notes and further illustrations, was published from 1836 to 1839 by Sir Charles Bell, Lord Brougham furnishing a

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valuable preliminary Discourse of Natural Theology, showing the Nature of the Evidence and the Advantages of the Study, which discourse has been separately published in several editions. This book of Paley's gave a peculiar impetus to the study of the theistic branch of natural theology in the first forty years of this century, its most important effect being the prompting the Earl of Bridgewater to leave a considerable sum of money, to be given to a series of writers, to be appointed by the President of the Royal Society, "on the power, wisdom, and goodness of God as manifested in the creation; illustrating such work by all reasonable arguments, as, for instance, the variety and formation of God's creatures in the animal, vegetable, and mineral kingdoms; the effect of digestion, and thereby of conversion; the construction of the hand of man, and an infinite variety of other arguments; as also by discoveries, ancient and modern, in arts, sciences, and the whole extent of literature." Hence originated the famous Bridgewater Treatises. They were eight in number, and were issued at intervals from 1834 to 1840. William Prout wrote on Chemistry, Meteorology, and the Function of Digestion, considered with reference to Natural Theology. William Kirby treated The History, Habits, and Instincts of Animals. Buckland examined from the standpoint of design Geology and Mineralogy. Sir Charles Bell took The Hand, its Mechanism and Vital Endowments. John Kidd showed The Adaptation of External Nature to the Physical Condition of Man. Chalmers expounded The Adaptation of External Nature to the Moral and Intellectual Constitution of Man. To Whewell was assigned Astronomy and General Physics considered with reference to Natural Theology. investigated Animal and Vegetable Physiology with the same end in view. All these treatises appear in Bohn's Standard Library, and they have been translated into German. They rendered good service at the time of their publication, and, although much of their science is obsolete, may be read with profit to-day. This is especially true of Whewell's contribution to the series and Sir Charles Bell's.

Valuable, however, as was the work of Paley, that work unmistakably gave a false twist to the scientific study of

the knowledge of God and His relation to man as given in nature. Paley's book was not a natural theology, but only one branch of natural theology, or rather one branch of a branch, the teleological branch of the theistic argument. But this distinction has been too much lost sight of, and with some deplorable consequences. It has been only too common a blunder to identify natural theology and the design argument. The result has been that for some while natural theology has been banished from view. The immediate, although by no means the inevitable effect of the publication of Darwin's Origin of Species, in 1859, was to lessen the influence of writers of the school of Paley, for as Huxley ventured to express himself in his Lay Sermons, "that which struck (him) most forcibly on his first perusal of the Origin of Species was the conviction that teleology, as commonly understood, had received its death-blow at Mr. Darwin's hands." As a matter of fact, the design argument, as drawn from all other sciences than biology, is untouched by the theory of natural selection, and biology itself is now seen to afford strong evidence for design, stronger evidence indeed than before; nevertheless, as a matter of fact, the limitation of natural theology to teleology has been disastrous, for in the momentary disfavour of teleology natural theology in its wider sense has ceased to be widely cultivated. Another predisposing element in the current neglect of natural theology lies in the prevalence of evolutionary views of a pantheistic kind. But the history of the past shows one thing clearly. If agnostic views are to be vanquished, they will be largely overthrown by showing how the scientific principles of nature, pushed to their ultimate consequences, necessitate belief in a personal power above nature.

The NINETEENTH CENTURY, however, has seen the addition to our previous knowledge of many valuable studies in natural theology. It has also seen two remarkable facts. The one fact is the growing neglect, and scorn, in Germany of all inquiries which are distinctly natural, and this as a consequence of the Kantian philosophy on the one hand, and on the other of the predominant belief in all German theologies that Christian faith is a unique fact, self-authenticating,

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and therefore requiring none of the evidences of natural theology (which is a truth pushed too far, seeing that Christian faith, quâ faith, is indistinguishable from religious faith or even the faith which constitutes belief in an external or internal world). At this point compare pp. 87–89. The second fact is the foundation in Scotland of the Gifford Lectures, under the will of the late Lord Gifford, in connection with the Scotch Universities, these lectureships being established for promoting, advancing, teaching, and diffusing the study of natural theology by able and reverent men, true thinkers, who are sincere lovers of, and earnest inquirers after truth. These lectureships will doubtless secure a continuous succession of the best thought along the lines of natural theology.

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## § 20.

#### BOOKS RECOMMENDED ON NATURAL THEOLOGY.

## I. For Introductory Study.

Butler, Joseph, The Analogy of Religion to the Constitution and Course of Nature, 1st edit. 1736. A good edition is that by Joseph Angus, 12mo, containing a life of Butler, a careful analysis, and good notes; Religious Tract Society. Another good edition is that of W. E. Gladstone, Clarendon Press, 1896 (vol. i. of Butler's Works). [With all its drawbacks still the best book as an introduction to natural theology, but see p. 169. The study of Butler should be accompanied by the study of some good book on theism, see (13.) under this section. A good book on the whole range of natural theology is a desideratum.]

## II. For More Advanced Study.

## (1.) Serial Works on Natural Theology.

The Gifford Lectures, viz.—

(a) At Edinburgh.
1888–1890. STIRLING, JAS. HUTCHISON, Philosophy and Theology,
T. & T. Clark, 1890. [Mostly a
historical study of the design argument.]

1891, 1893. Stokes, G. G., Natural Theology, 2 vols., Black, 1891, 1893. [A discussion of modern difficulties in the way of a theistic belief, such as the existence of pain, evolution, etc.]

1894. PFLEIDERER, OTTO, Philosophy and Development of Religion, 2 vols., Blackwood, 1894. [The 1st vol. is a study in the philosophy of theism; the 2nd in the origin and development of Christianity naturalistically explained.]

1894, 1895. Fraser, Alex. Campbell, Philosophy of Theism, 1st series, Blackwood, 1895. [A study of the universe on the postulates of the

ego, matter, and God.]

(b) At Glasgow.

1888-1892. F. Max Müller, Natural,

Physical, Anthropological, and Psychological Religion, in 4 vols., Longmans, 1889-93. [Mostly studies in the development of the doctrine of God in the religions of India.]

#### (c) At St. Andrews.

1890-1892. CAIRD, EDWARD, The Evolution of Religion, 2 vols., Glasgow, Maclehose, 1893. [Defines religion, and evolution, and then traces the stages of the development of the religious consciousness as objective, subjective, and absolute religion.]

## (2.) On the History of Natural Theology.

FARRAR, A. S., A Critical History of Free Thought in reference to the Christian Religion, 1863. The Bampton Lectures for 1862. [States the facts, causes, and lessons of the successive struggles of the human spirit to free itself from the Christian faith, in the early Christian Age, in the Middle Age, and later in England, France, and Germany.]

Hunt, John, Religious Thought in England from the Reformation to the End of Last Century: A Contribution to the History of Theology, 2 vols., Strahan, 1871. [Chapters vi., viii., ix., xi., and xiii. contain an account of the course of natural theology in

England from the standpoint of a Broad Churchman.]

Tulloch, John, Rational Theology and Christian Philosophy in England in the Seventeenth Century, 2 vols., Blackwood, 1872. [An account of the Cambridge Platonists and their forerunners.]

GILLETT, E. H., God in Human Thought, or Natural Theology traced in Literature, Ancient and Modern, to the Time of Bishop Butler, with a Closing Chapter on the Moral System, and an English Bibliograph from Spencer to Butler, 2 vols., 1874, New York. [Treats of natural theology in the ancient religions, in Greek literature and philosophy, in the Roman world, in the early Christian Church, in scholasticism, as well as in post-Reformation times.]

Zückler, Otto, Geschichte der Beziehungen zwischen Theologie und Naturwissenschaft, 2 vols., Gütersloh, 1877, 1879. [Describes the various views of the relations between religion and science from the commencement of Christianity to Newton and Leibnitz, and

thence to the present and Darwin.

PÜNJER, BERNHARD, Geschichte der christlichen Religionsphilosophie seit der Reformation, 2 vols., Brunswick, 1880–83: partly translated by W. Hastie, as History of the Christian Philosophy of Religion from the Reformation to Kant, T. & T. Clark, 1887. [Traces the influences of philosophic speculation in religious matters from Cardan and Bruno, through English deism and its related schools, to Kant, Schleiermacher, Hegel, and Lotze.

Cairns, John, Unbelief in the Eighteenth Century as contrasted with

its Earlier and Later History, Edinburgh 1881.

## (3.) On Natural Theology in general.

M'Cosh, James, The Method of the Divine Government, Physical and Moral, 1st edit. 1850, 5th edit., Edinburgh 1856. [An inductive investigation into the moral character of God, as evidenced, first, in His providence or the relations of the world to man, and secondly, in His internal government, or the relations of man to God.]

Simon, Jules, Natural Religion, edited with Preface and Notes by J. B. Marsden, the translation being made from the third French edition, Bentley, 1857, 12mo. [An examination, from the standpoint of natural theology, of the nature of God, providence,

immortality, and worship.

ZÜCKLER, OTTO, Theologia Naturalis, Entwurf einer systematischen Naturtheologie vom Offenbarungs-glüubigen Standpunkte aus, Frankfort 1860. [Only one vol. published; contains a history of the study of natural theology, a statement of principles, and an examination of the teaching of nature on the being and attributes of God.]

ULRICI, HERMANN, Gott und die Natur, Leipzig, 1st edit. 1861, 3rd edit. 1875. [Setting out with the results of modern science (atoms, force, law, the several forces), aims at showing that the assumption of the divine existence is necessary to these scientific

ideas.

M'Cosh, James, The Supernatural in relation to the Natural, 12mo, Macmillan, 1862. [After a definition of terms, contends that there is law in the supernatural as well as the natural world, and

that the laws of the two worlds are analogous.]

Buchanan, James, Analogy considered as a Guide to Truth, and applied as an Aid to Faith, Edinburgh, T. & T. Clark, 1863. [Examines the nature and limits of the argument from analogy.]

Murphy, J. J., The Scientific Basis of Faith, 1873.

Jackson, Wm., The Philosophy of Natural Theology, an Essay in Confutation of the Scepticism of the Present Day, Hodder, 1874. [Treats in order of the design argument, the materialistic, idealistic, and agnostic objections to theism, and the several constructive arguments of natural theology.]

Bascom, John, A Philosophy of Religion, or the Rational Grounds of Religious Belief, New York, 1876. [Surveys the natural doctrines of God, man, immortality, revelation, and miracles, adding some

discussions irrelevant to natural theology.]

Reynolds, J. W., The Supernatural in Nature, a Verification by the Free Use of Science, Kegan Paul, 1878. [Studies on questions of natural theology, notably its testimony to the Biblical account of creation.]

Cellarius, A New Analogy between Revealed Religion and the Course and Constitution of Nature, 12mo, Macmillan, 1880.

Matheson, Geo., Natural Elements of Revealed Theology, Nisbet, 1881, 12mo.

DRUMMOND, HENRY, Natural Law in the Spiritual World, 12mo, Hodder, 1883. [Thirty thousand copies of this book were issued in twelve months: a modern application of Butler's argument from analogy, in this case based on the first principles of biology.]

Temple, Frederick, Bishop of Exeter, The Relations between Religion and Science, Macmillan, 1884. The Bampton Lectures for 1884. [A statement of the unity of the ultimate principles of

science and religion.]

Le Conte, Joseph, Religion and Science: A Series of Sunday Lectures on the relation of Natural and Revealed Religion, or the Truths revealed in Nature and Scripture, 12mo, Ward, Lock, & Tyler, no date; a reprint of the New York edition of 1874. [Shows how the teachings of nature confirm those of revelation upon the personality, nature, and attributes of God, the creation, and the nature of man.]

Hettinger, Franz, Natural Religion, from the Apologie des Christenthums,—see Theologische Bibliothek, § 15 (3.),—edited by Henry Sebastian Bowden, 12mo, Burns & Oates, 1890. On doubt, God, truth, and man, body and soul: Roman Catholic.]

# (4.) On the Standpoints—Rationalism.

Hagenbach, K. R., German Rationalism, its Rise, Progress, and Decline, Edinburgh 1865. [Part of Hagenbach's well-known

Church History, translated.

Hurst, John F., History of Rationalism, embracing a Survey of the Present State of Protestant Theology, with Appendix of Literature, New York, 1st edit. 1865, 9th edit. 1880. [Surveys the whole field since the Reformation—Germany, Holland, France, Switzerland, England, United States.]

Lecky, W. E., History of the Rise and Influence of the Spirit of Rationalism in Europe, 2 vols., 1st edit. 1866, Longmans, 7th edit. 1875. [Sketches the decline of belief in witchcraft, miracles, and persecution, together with the æsthetic, scientific, moral, and

political developments of rationalism.

## (5.) On the Standpoints—Deism.

Leland, John, View of the Principal Deistical Writers that have appeared in England in the Last and Present Century, with Observations upon them, and some Account of the Answers that have been published against them in several Letters to a Friend, 1754, 2 vols. The best edition is the fifth, which has a continuation by Cyrus R. Edmonds put in the form of an introduction, 1837. [The contemporary work on the history of English deism.] Lechler, G. V., Geschichte des englischen Deismus, Stuttgart, 1841.

Noack, L., Die Freidenker in der Religion, 3 vols., Berne 1853-55. [In the first volume the English deists are treated, in the second their descendants the French freethinkers, and in the third their Teutonic descendants, the leaders of the so-called German enlightenment, thus supplementing the history of English by that of Continental deism.]

Stephen, Leslie, History of English Thought in the Eighteenth Century, 2 vols., 1876, 2nd edit., Smith, Elder, 1883. [An account of the deistic controversy from the standpoint of an

agnostic.]

## (6.) On the Standpoints—Materialism.

Buechner, L., Kraft und Stoff: Empirisch-naturphilosophische Studien, 12mo, 1st edit., Frankfort 1855, 15th edit., Leipzig 1874; has been translated into thirteen languages; the best edition in English appeared under the title, Force and Matter, or Principles of the Natural Order of the Universe, with a System of Morality based thereon, a popular exposition, newly translated from the fifteenth German edition, enlarged and revised by the Author, with portrait and biography, Asher, 1884. [Identifies brain and thought.]

Janet, Paul, Le Matérialisme Contemporain, Paris 1864, 18mo, 1875, 12mo, a translation of which was published both in London and New York, in 12mo, 1866. [Criticises the modern physio-

logical materialism which identifies brain and thought.]

Lange, F. A., Geschichte des Materialismus und Kritik seiner Bedeutung in der Gegenwart, 2 vols., 1st edit., Iserlohn 1867, 3rd edit. 1876; translated into French by Pommerol, and into English by E. C. Thomas, the latter forming the first three volumes of Trübner's English and Foreign Philosophical Library. [In spite of its creed,—materialism tempered by ideals indifferently true or false,—useful for the thoroughness of its historical survey.]

Weis, L., Anti - Materialismus, Vorträge aus dem Gebiete der Philosophie, 3 vols. 12mo, Munich 1872. [Contains, with over-

speculative views, pungent and good criticism.]

## (7.) On the Standpoints—Pantheism.

Jaesche, G. B., Der Pantheismus nach seinen Hauptformen, 2 vols., Berlin 1826, 1828. Romang, J. F., Der neueste Pantheismus oder die jung-hegelsche

Weltanschauung, Zurich 1848.

Saisset, E., Essai de Philosophie Religieuse, 2 vols. 12mo, Paris 1862-65, which have been translated, and published as Modern Pantheism, an Essay on Religious Philosophy, in 2 vols., T. & T. Clark, 1863. [In two parts, the first being historical studies on Descartes, Malebranche, Spinoza, Newton, Leibnitz, Kant, Hegel, and the second meditations on theism.]

Dix, Morgan, Lectures on the Pantheistic Idea of an Impersonal Substance Deity, as contrasted with the Christian Faith concerning

Almighty God, 12mo, New York 1864.

Hunt, John, An Essay on Pantheism, 1866, Longmans; revised and issued in 1884 as Pantheism and Christianity, Isbister. [Brings together much historical information, largely in the words of the authorities, and admirably classified.]

Jundt, A., Histoire du Panthéisme Populaire au Moyen Age et au

XVI<sup>e</sup> Siècle, Paris 1875.

PLUMPTRE, C. E., A General Sketch of the History of Pantheism, 2 vols., Deacon, 1881. [A good epitome of Oriental, Greek, and modern pantheism.]

## (8.) On the Standpoints—Positivism.

Comte, Auguste, Cours de Philosophie Positive, Paris, 6 vols., 1829; 4th edition, with a Preface (as in 3rd edition, 1869) by E. Littré, 1878; an abridged translation, as Positive Philosophy, by Harriet Martineau, in 3 vols., 1896, Bell; and the first volume translated by G. H. Lewes, as Philosophy of the Sciences, Bohn 1853.

— Système de Politique Positive, ou Traité de Sociologie, instituant la Religion de l'Humanité, 4 vols., Paris 1851-1854; translated as Comte's System of Positive Polity, with notes, by J. H. Bridges, Fred. Harrison, E. S. Beesley, Richard Congreve,

etc., in 4 vols., 1875-1877, Longmans.

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# DIVISION II.

## ETHNIC THEOLOGY.

§ 21.

NAME, DEFINITION, AND PROBLEM OF ETHNIC THEOLOGY.

ROM the first branch of theology, which deals scientifically with the religious data afforded by what is called nature, we now proceed to Ethnic Theology, which deals scientifically with the data afforded by the various religions of the world, excluding the Jewish and Christian. It is true that these religions may be viewed under a twofold aspect,—either as instances of that universal sense of religion which characterises humanity everywhere, as is now commonly allowed, in which case they would belong to that section of theology which has been usually called the philosophy of religion, and which deals with the universal characteristics of man in his superhuman relations; or, on the other hand, the various religions of the world may be studied objectively, as instances of those objective systems in which the various races of mankind have uttered their religious thoughts and expressed their religious emotions. It is in the latter sense that we are now concerned with the religions of the earth. Just as nature gives some knowledge of God and of human relations to Him, so there is a knowledge of God in His human relations to be gained from the ethnic religions. What ethnic theology has to do is, to examine and classify these several heathen

religions, and, as a final step, to formulate and criticise the general truths to which these religions testify.

Ethnic theology is not the only name which has been given to this branch. Some have called it "the science of religions," a name which might include Judaism and Christianity in spite of their distinctiveness. Some have coined the names of the "science of religion" or "comparative religion," to both of which a similar objection may be taken, and an additional objection as well, that insufficient distinction is made between religion in its objective and subjective senses. Some have even preferred the simple name of "history of religions," which is equally open to the objection that no difference is made between the characteristic principles of heathen and Christian religions, at the same time that the final comparative stage is lost from view altogether. Ethnic theology, then, is the science of the heathen religions as such, and its problem is to investigate these several religions by collecting the facts they severally present, by collating these facts, and by ultimately drawing the inferences these classified facts warrant.

## § 22.

#### UTILITY OF THE STUDY OF ETHNIC THEOLOGY.

That such a study as has just been defined is both interesting and instructive will soon appear. For, first, ethnic theology brings its own reward to the student because of its intrinsic interest. "The proper study of mankind is man," said Pope; and, may we not add, the proper study of religious mankind is man religious? To catch any glimpse of the upturned face of the rudest savage, to hear the cries of men to the mighty powers which are unseen but not unfelt, to recognise that prayer is as universal as hunger, to watch the ritual exalted or obscene by which men trust to approach their deities, to trace the doctrines of faiths severely moral or grossly degraded, to re-feel or re-think what millions of our race have thought or felt in the presence of the mystery of

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being, are not these returns enough for any labour bestowed? As Max Müller has well said: "In the study of mankind there can hardly be a subject more deeply interesting than the study of the different forms of religion; and much as I value the science of language for the aid which it lends us in unravelling some of the most complicated tissues of the human intellect, I confess that to my mind there is no study more absorbing than that of the religions of the world,—the study if I may so call it, of the various languages in which man has spoken to his Maker, and of that language in which his Maker 'at sundry times and divers manners' spake to man." "To my mind," Max Müller continues, "the great epochs in the world's history are marked, not by the foundation or the destruction of empires, by the migrations of races, or by French revolutions; all this is outward history, made up of events that seem gigantic and overpowering to those only who cannot see beyond or beneath. The real history of man is the history of religion: the wonderful ways by which the different families of the human race advanced towards a truer knowledge and a deeper love of God. This is the foundation that underlies all profane history; it is the light, the soul, and life of history, and without it all history would indeed be profane."1

Secondly, such a study is peculiarly fitted to enlarge the sympathies, and counteract that narrowness which is only too apt to invade the religious life. It is with a feeling of intense surprise that one reads for the first time some of the more sublime hymns of the Vedas, or some of the more lofty moral injunctions of Buddha. The same great problems of existence are seen to agitate all the higher religious leaders of mankind. There is a light, it is seen, that lighteth every man in the better hours of his being. Then the initial surprise passes into rejoicing, for has not the unity of man received renewed illustration? Has not the sense of brotherhood become quick? Have not forebodings of some wider and more inclusive divine plan than we had dreamed crossed our minds? Perhaps a vision has dawned, not only of the common need newly attested, and the universal seeking after God

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Chips from a German Workshop, 1867, vol. i., Lecture i. pp. 20, 21.

unexpectedly witnessed afresh, but also of the nations walking amidst the light of the New Jerusalem. We do not honour Shakespeare by depreciating Cowper and Keats; and what is true in literature is still more true in religion. A belief in the inspiration of Moses does not make it necessary to disbelieve the inspiration of Balaam; and turning to One higher far than Moses, the transcendent influence of Jesus is not diminished one iota by the acknowledgment of the beneficent influence of Zoroaster or Confucius. Verily God's ways are not man's ways. "In the generations gone by (He) suffered all the nations to walk in their own ways: and yet He left not Himself without witness."

THIRDLY, the study of ethnic theology will be of peculiar value to the Christian missionary. With all the advantages at the disposal of the missionary, of long residence, and of daily familiar intercourse, the investigation of the heathen systems amidst which he lives may form the delight of his leisure moments, the hobby which may benefit others whilst refreshing himself. More important still, the knowledge to be gained by acquainting oneself with the leading details of the heathen faiths will supply those invaluable points of contact which give the Christian advocate vantage ground. As Paul utilised his knowledge of Hellenism for his great Master's cause, so the Christian missionary may employ his know-ledge of the heathen systems to lead up his hearers to Christianity. There are great needs poorly met in every ethnic faith, and the recognition of these may afford the starting-point for many a Christian discourse. Often there are cherished traditions common to Christianity and the heathen religions the history of which can be traced, and these may be turned to account in aggressive work. There are legends and injunctions which contravene the moral sense, firmly to lay the finger upon which will be of value. A knowledge of any heathen system, or, better still, of several heathen systems, will aid the labours of the missionary by both accentuating Christianity, and accentuating points of heathen teaching which may be used as auxiliaries to Christian truths. As Loring Brace has so well said, in his The Unknown God, "What may be called the modern method in studying ethnic

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religion is not, as was once the case, merely to search for their defects, or to show their inferiority to the highest religion; but to find what good there is in them; to see how the man of other races and times regarded the problems of the universe."

For, FOURTHLY, Christianity itself will receive a stronger emphasis upon comparison with the ethnic systems. no secret," writes Max Müller, in his Lectures on the Science of Religion, "that true Christianity, I mean the religion of Christ, seems to me to become more and more exalted the more we know and the more we appreciate the treasures of truth hidden in the despised religions of the world." 1 Indeed, more significantly still, remembering the tone of some of his earlier essays, Max Müller commenced his preface to the Sacred Books of the East by saying,—and the words are deserving of emphasis:—"Readers who have been led to believe that the Vedas of the ancient Brahmans, the Avesta of the Zoroastrians, the Tripitaka of the Buddhists, the Kings of Confucius, or the Koran of Mohammed are books full of primeval wisdom and religious enthusiasm, or at least of sound and simple moral teaching, will be disappointed in consulting these volumes (of sacred books). Looking at many of the books that have lately been published on the religions of the ancient world, I do not wonder that such a belief should have been raised; but I have long felt that it was high time to dispel such illusions, and to place the study of the ancient religions of the world on a more real and sound, on a more truly historical basis. It is but natural that those who write on ancient religions, and who have studied them from translations only, not from original documents, should have had eyes for their bright rather than for their dark sides. The former absorb all the attention of the student; the latter, as they teach nothing, seem hardly to deserve any notice. Scholars also who have devoted their life either to the editing of original texts or to the careful interpretation of some of the sacred books, are more inclined, after they have disinterred from a heap of rubbish some solitary fragments of pure gold. to exhibit these treasures only, than to display all the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Introduction to the Science of Religion, 12mo, 1873, p. 37.

rubbish from which they had to extract them. . . . They have raised expectations that cannot be fulfilled, fears also that, as will be easily seen, are unfounded." 1 The caution was not unnecessary. There has undoubtedly been a tendency to speak the truth, but not the whole truth, about the ethnic religions. Thus, on the one hand, antagonism has been roused against ethnic theology itself, and, on the other hand, ethnic theology has been put in a false light. However, if a little knowledge of ethnic theology threw Christianity in the shade, a little more knowledge will intensify the chiaroscuro, all the ethnic religions combining to form a dark background for the brilliant light of Christian truth. By the results of ethnic theology, of the scientific study of these "religions growing wild," to use a phrase of Schelling's, the way will be prepared for the distinctive Christian doctrines, whilst the natural doctrines of God, the world, man, and sin will be singularly enriched.

Then, LASTLY, the defence of Christianity demands a close study of ethnic theology. As has been hinted, ethnic theology has been eagerly pursued by some just because of their bias against Christianity. The dispassionate study of the scientific man has given place in some quarters to the prejudiced investigation of the avowed secularist. The comparative study of religion has been made a means for degrading Christianity by exalting the other religions of mankind. Emile Burnouf writes a series of articles in the Revue des Deux Mondes 2 to magnify the heathen religions at the expense of the Christian faith. Eugène Véron 3 attempts a natural history of religions in the interests of materialism. Even in England there have been many express statements of the equipollency of all religions. In the interests of truth, the Christian believer cannot allow these fields to be untilled, or tilled only by enemies. Let the Christian thinker examine these ancient faiths without bias and with his quickened spiritual faculties, and he will find many a weapon which may be legitimately used in the great Christian war.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Sacred Books of the East, vol. i., 1879, pp. ix, x.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Emile Burnouf, *La Science des Religions*, 12mo, 3rd edit., Paris 1876; translated as *The Science of Religions*, Sonnenschein, 1888.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Engène Véron, *Histoire Naturelle des Religions*, 2 vols. 12mo, Paris 1885, forming vols. v. and vi. of the *Bibliothèque Matérialiste*.

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## § 23.

#### DIVISION OF ETHNIC THEOLOGY.

Having discussed, then, the utility of the study of ethnic theology, as we have named the data and principles of the heathen religions scientifically investigated, the next question is, as to the most appropriate classification of the several sections of the science.

The two leading divisions of ethnic theology appear from the above definition. Like natural theology, ethnic theology is divided, first, into the data, and second, into the inductions of the science.

But in the classification of the data themselves much difficulty manifests itself, largely because of unsolved problems connected with these data. The data are of course the several religions of heathendom, and the task of the classification of these data is the task of the affiliation of these religions; but here difficulty intrudes, because, notwithstanding the clear views which have been gained into the historical course of the greater religions of the world, there are still many religions whose origin and development are wholly or very largely unknown. However, it is better to recognise the limitations of any study than to advocate any principle of arrangement prematurely. Premature classifications have been too frequently made. Accepting the principle of a natural evolution, for example, contrary to some of the facts presented by the religions with which he deals, Tiele 1 has propounded the following classification: first, animistic religions, or those which are based on a belief in spirits; second, religion among the Chinese; third, religion among the Egyptians and Shemites; fourth, the Indo-Germanic religions, where there was little contact with the Shemites; and lastly, Indo-Germanic religions influenced by the Shemitic faiths. This is altogether a hasty generalisation, unwarranted by the present state of our knowledge. The same is true of

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Outlines of the History of Religions, to the Spread of the Universal Religions, 2nd edit. 1880, pp. 4, 5.

the more elaborate division of Réville. 1 Réville classifies religions as either polytheistic or monotheistic. The polytheistic faiths he divides into five classes, viz. (1) the primitive religion of nature; (2) the animistic and fetichistic religions; (3) the great national mythologies, as of China, Egypt, India, Italy, etc.; (4) the religions which are legalist as well as polytheistic, viz. Brahmanism, Parsism, Confucianism, and Taoism; (5) Buddhism, a religion at once universal and redemptive. The monotheistic faiths he divides into three classes, viz. (1) Judaism, legalist and national; (2) Islamism, legalist and international; (3) Christianity, redemptive and international. Here again it is assumed, under the exigencies of a doctrine of natural evolution, that the various religions, contrary to some of the facts of the case, are ultimately derived from a worship of nature and of the ghosts of ancestors. Instead of such premature generalisation, it should be frankly recognised that our knowledge is not yet ripe enough for a complete affiliation of the various religions which men have professed, and it should be also recognised that the classification adopted ought to be true as far as it goes, whilst showing with clearness the problems still to be solved.

After all, the problem of the classification of religions must be governed by the general course of history, for the history of religions is only a part of the history of man. "The only classification which can be approved is that which respects the genesis, the evolution, the transformation of the different religions, that is to say, which is traced upon the historical evolution itself, and follows the variations of doctrine and worship in its relation to the totality of the social transformations: in other words, the political and ethnographical classification." Happily the general development of humanity is becoming better known every day, and by the aid of the comparative science of language and other means, the main outline of the genesis and history of the leading people of the globe can be traced. Many a fissure

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Prolégomènes de l'Histoire des Religions, 3rd edit., Paris 1881, pp. 126-143.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Maurice Vernes, in Lichtenberger's Encyclopédie des Sciences Religiouses, vol. xi. p. 201.

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has to be bridged, many a fault compensated for, and many a remote stratum to be surveyed, as a geologist would say; nevertheless, the general effect of future investigations can only be to complete the general outline it is possible to sketch at present, not to render entire reconstruction compulsory.

Taking our stand, then, upon the present state of our knowledge of the religions of heathendom, the first great division of these religions is into the religions which have been classified and those which are as yet unclassed. Let us deal with the former first, bearing in mind the golden rule of classification, that we observe everywhere the actual development of history. This rule, in fact, is but our old rule of process from the simpler to the more complex under another guise.

At the most remote period of which we have extra-Biblical historical knowledge,—we are not here concerned with Scriptural statements,—we find four great contemporaneous races, the Chinese, the Egyptians, the Indo-Germans, and the Shemites. Each of these races has had a religious history which can be followed with tolerable accuracy.

The Egyptian religion remained the Egyptian religion from the earliest times, till it was supplanted, first by Persia, then by Greece, next by Christianity, and subsequently by Mahometanism.

The Chinese religion has also had its own characteristic development. The ancient religion of China gave birth, about six centuries before the Christian era, to two sages, Confucius and Lao Tse, from the former of whom has sprung the imperial religion of China, Confucianism, and from the latter of whom has come another state religion of China, commonly called Taoism. Further, some centuries before the Christian era, missionaries from India penetrated into China, desiring to spread the faith of Buddha, and from these missionaries arose the third state religion of China, or Chinese Buddhism. In China to-day all three religions coexist, Confucianism, Taoism, and Buddhism.

Following next along the stream of the Indo-Germanic faiths, we also find the early religion of the great Aryan race

pursuing a characteristic development in each people into which this race divided. The primitive Aryans were a migratory race, and they divided into various branches. Some settled in India, where their religion pursued its own specific course; some settled in Persia, where their religion also took a peculiar form; some became the founders of the Letto-Slavs, some founders of the Teutonic races, some of the Celtic tribes, and some of the Pelasgi, from whom sprang the Greeks and the Romans; in each of these cases as well the ancient Arvan faith assumed characteristic forms, whether from internal development or foreign admixture. Thus arose the several Indo-Germanic religions,—the religion of Greece, the religion of Rome, the ancient German faith, the faith of the Letto-Slavs, the faith of Persia, which from the predominant influence of Zoroaster has been called Zoroastrianism, and the religions of India. The course of religious development in India is well understood. The ancient Aryan faith gave rise first to the religion of the Rig-Veda; then to that development of the Vedic faith, which is called Brahmanism; then, by way of reaction, to Buddha and Buddhism; and yet again, by a resuscitation and development of Brahmanism, to Hinduism, as the latest phase of this Arvan faith is called. Another Indian religion not so perfectly understood is called Jainism.

One other primary division remains to be characterised. The ancient Shemitic faith divided into two branches, the Northern and the Southern. Of these the Southern has followed its own separate course, giving rise first to the ancient Arab faith, next to Mahomet and Islam, and since Mahomet's death to the various developments of the faith of the Koran. The Northern branch split into several well-marked phases, each of which was destined to vanish early before the onward march of Judaism and Christianity. These phases were the Phœnician, the Aramæan, and the several Canaanitish religions.

Such have been the leading features of the development of the four streams of the ethnic faiths traceable in history, each having followed a tolerably characteristic course of its own. Twice, however, a fusion has taken place between DIVISION. 197

representatives of two original streams, as where the Phœnician faith coalesced with the old Pelasgic faith to form the religions of Greece and Rome, and when the Buddhist missionaries of the Aryan race crossed into China, Japan, Burmah, and Thibet.

So much for the data of ethnic theology which have been already classified. Outside of these data, however, there lie vast fields of the unknown, or of the inadequately known, the accurate classification of which is as yet impossible. These unclassified faiths are those which have left behind them no sacred books, and which mostly consist of the religions of savage races, such as the aborigines of Australia, Polynesia, Asia, Africa, and America. Concerning the nature of these various religions as at present observed, much remains to be learnt by accurate and unbiassed investigation, and concerning the genesis of these religions almost all has to be discovered. To call all these native faiths animistic, as some have done, and so end the matter, is at least premature. The close study of language and extant remains, the investigation of all kinds of relics of the past, must determine more about the genesis and development of these faiths, before they can possibly be classified satisfactorily. Whether, for example, they belong to either of the great streams of religion already classified, or whether they form one or many streams of a unique kind, future inquiry can alone decide. The comparative method has many a discovery yet to make as brilliant as that which demonstrated Celts and Teutons to be the blood-relations of the dwellers in the Punjab. Not only so; inquiry has yet to decide, by careful comparison of all extant data, whether, as already seems probable on purely comparative grounds alone, the primitive streams of religion which ran side by side in the earliest historic times are not themselves branches from some primitive source. Thus comparisons carefully conducted between the earliest Babylonian, Chinese, and Egyptian records seem to point ever more conclusively to the truth of the Biblical view of one primary stream of faith, breaking into diverse streams.

The inductions of ethnic theology have scarcely been seriously attacked as yet. Nevertheless, the principal classes

of those inductions it is possible to state. The religions of the world, like nature, have some knowledge to impart, not concerning Christ, or the new life in Christ, or the future of the Christian Church in this world or the next, all of which religious knowledge belongs to Christianity and Judaism, but knowledge concerning God, and a spiritual hierarchy, and the universe, and man, and evil, and salvation from evil, and associations of the saved, and the last things. Under these several headings, therefore, the inductions of ethnic theology may be classified.

The entire division of ethnic theology, however, as the more complete scheme of Biblical sciences suggests (see § 29), would run as follows:—

- I. The Introduction to Ethnic Theology, or the study of the subsidiary sciences necessary to the interpretation of the ethnic religions, or, as it may be otherwise expressed, the means for obtaining the Data of Ethnic Theology. Such an introduction would embrace the introduction to every religion, under the following subdivisions, Textual Criticism, Canonics, Philology, Hermeneutics, and Literary Criticism.
- II. THE DATA OF ETHNIC THEOLOGY, or the facts of the several religions of the world, outside of Judaism and Christianity.
  - The religions of China the pre-Confucian religion, Confucianism, Taoism, Buddhism.
  - 2. The religion of Egypt.
  - 3. The Shemitic religions:-
    - (1) Northern—the Babylonian and Assyrian, the Canaanitish, Aramæan, and Phœnician religions.
    - (2) Southern—the ancient Arab faith, Islam.
  - 4. The Indo-Germanic religions:—
    - (1) Of India—the ancient Aryan faith, Vedism, Brahmanism, Buddhism, Hinduism, Jainism.
    - (2) Of Persia—the ancient Persian faith, Zoroastrianism.
    - (3) Of the ancient Letto-Slavs.
    - (4) Of the ancient Germans.
    - (5) Of the ancient Greeks.
    - (6) Of the ancient Romans.
    - (7) Of the Celts.
  - 5. The religions not yet genetically classified :-
    - The religions of Australia and the Pacific—of the Australians, Tasmanians, Papuans, Melanesians, Micronesians, Polynesians.
    - (2) The religions of the native races of America—of the Esquimaux, the Aleutians, the North American Indians, the South American Indians, the Toltecs, the Aztecs, the Patagonians, the Terra-del-Fuegians.

(3) The religions of the native races of Africa—the Negroes, the Bushmen, the Hottentots, the Kaffirs, the Malagasy.

(4) The religions of the native races of Asia—Japan, China, India, Mesopotamia, Persia, Arabia.

III. THE INDUCTIONS OF ETHNIC THEOLOGY, or the truths inferrible from the ethnic religions individually, more or less unitedly, or quite collectively, namely:—

1. Doctrinally regarded (Ethnic Dogmatics 1), viz.—

(1) Concerning God (Ethnic Theology Proper).

- (2) ,, Spirits (Ethnic Pneumatology, or Angelology).
- (3) ,, the World (Ethnic Cosmology).
- (4) ,, Man (Ethnic Anthropology).
- (5) ,, Evil (Ethnic Ponerology).
- (6) ,, Salvation from Evil (Ethnic Soteriology).
- (7) ,, Associations of the Saved (Ethnic Ecclesiology).
- (8) ,, the Last Things (Ethnic Eschatology).
- 2. Ethically regarded (Ethnic Ethics).

In this instance, too, as was said under Natural Theology, so elaborate a division is rather of ideal than immediate value. Nor as yet can such a classification, in its fulness, be made available for cataloguing important ethnic books without some confusion. Further, as was said under Natural Theology, so in the case of Ethnic Theology, the study of the several specific sciences of Ethnic Theology have scarcely been carried to such a point as to call for distinct consideration here. Doubtless, as investigation proceeds, the treatment of the subordinate sciences in such a book as this must be more full.

# § 24.

#### HISTORY OF THE STUDY OF ETHNIC THEOLOGY.

Advancing to the history of the study of this branch of theology, there is little to be said of its study as a whole. There is no narrative possible of epochs and crises, tendencies and enthusiastic developments. Ethnic theology is a modern science. As has already been remarked, the inductions of the science have scarcely been attacked as yet, nor could

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> If one or a few religions only are concerned, some appropriate adjective must be substituted for ethnic, such as Parsi, Shemitic, etc. etc.

they be, seeing that the indispensable preliminary task of the collection and classification of the data upon which the inductions must be based has scarcely been prosecuted with such completeness as to warrant advance to theorising. nineteenth century had run half its course before it was possible to procure any adequate information concerning the religions of India, China, and Persia, to say nothing of the lesser faiths. Hardly any part of the Vedas, the sacred books of the Brahmans, had been translated into a European language. Very insufficient knowledge of the Zend-Avesta, the sacred books of the Parsis, was procurable from the writings of Anquetil du Perron and Kleuker. About Buddhism, the religion of 430,000,000 of the human race, scarcely anything was known. The writings of the sages of China were still almost sealed books to Europeans. In the last forty years, however, much has been done towards unveiling the mysteries of most of the religions of the world, and innumerable data of many kinds have been collected and examined, very frequently by ardent Christian missionaries. Much indispensable preparatory work has thus been done, which has already influenced considerably present-day views of Christian truth, neutralising insularity and enlarging the recognised area of divine action. If twenty years ago Max Müller felt it necessary to express his doubts "whether the time has yet come for attempting to trace, after the model of the science of language, the definite outlines of the science of religion," the case stands differently to-day. Large materials have been accumulated for the study of the leading religions of the world; the genesis and development of these religions is becoming increasingly clearer; many of the sacred books of the several faiths have been translated; some sort of classification of faiths has been rendered possible; and we are, as various present-day volumes testify, on the threshold of a balanced view of the ethnic faiths, which shall both analyse their origin and describe their combined results.

From what has been said, it is evident that the history of the study of ethnic theology resolves itself into a history of the advancing knowledge of each separate religion. What it

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Chips from a German Workshop, vol. i., 1867.

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is necessary to say concerning the progress made in the examination of the individual religions will come more appropriately in the next section. But it would be ungracious to pass on without some few words of acknowledgment to the distinguished man who has had the greatest influence in acclimatising ethnic studies in England. By his prolonged investigation of the religions of India, Mr. Max Müller has rendered very eminent service to all students of theology; he has rendered even greater service by making questions of ethnic theology part and parcel of the thought of all cultured men in this land. To many the reading of the first volume of his Chips from a German Workshop has proved an epoch in theological study, causing old truths first to become displaced, and then to reassume beauty and regularity, in the kaleidoscope of the mind. The manifest earnestness of the writer of these "Chips," his scholarship, his skill in the clear and interesting presentation of recondite studies, his evident esteem for the exceptional in Christianity, his charity, characteristics like these have attracted readers, have given some rest even whilst producing some mental disturbance, and have set many investigating ethnic studies with enthusiasm.

# § 25.

#### HISTORY OF THE STUDY OF THE SEVERAL HEATHEN RELIGIONS.

In examining the progress made in the study of the several ethnic religions, let us begin with the RELIGIONS OF CHINA professed by 340,000,000 of people. The religions of China are, we now know, three in number—the doctrine of Confucius; the doctrine of Lao Tse, and the doctrine of Buddha. All three religions, Confucianism, Taoism, and Buddhism, exist side by side in China, and are officially recognised, although possibly a better definition of the religious belief of a Chinaman would be, that, to whichever of these three doctrines he inclined, his fundamental belief was in a worship of ancestors which had best expressed itself in the precepts of Confucius. Confucianism is tolerably well known nowadays. It con-

sists of the maxims and precepts which are contained in the works of Confucius, and of his disciples and commentators. It is contained in the canonical books called King. The great King, or canonical books of the first class, are five in number: —The Yi King, or Book of Changes; the Shu King, or Book of History; the Shih King, or Book of Odes; the Li Ki, or Record of Rites; and finally, the Khun Khiu, or Annals of the Principality of Lu. The small King, or canonical books of the second class, comprise the four books of the Great Learning, of the Invariable Mean, of the Discourses and Conversations, and of Mencius, the Two Books of Ritual, the Book of Filial Piety, the Three Ancient Commentators of the Annals of the Principality of Lu, and the Dictionary Eul Ya. These books have been examined, studied, translated, and commented upon in a manner to give us a tolerable idea of their contents, especially by Professor James Legge in his monumental work on the "Chinese Classics," and in his translations embodied in The Sacred Books of the East. Amongst the predecessors of the Professor of Chinese at Oxford in the same field may be mentioned with honour Doctors Medhurst, Morrison, and Marshman, who were all eminent missionaries, and various other writers in French and German, as well as English. Confucius was not an inventor of the system called by his name, but, as he himself claimed, a transmitter from the ancients. Of all these books, it is necessary to bear in mind that, as Dr. Legge has said, they "do not profess to have been inspired, or to contain what we should call a revelation: historians, poets, and others wrote them as they were moved in their own minds; . . . but while the old Chinese books do not profess to contain any divine revelation, the references in them to religious views and practices are numerous; and it is from these that the student has to fashion for himself an outline of the early religion of the people."1

Very different to Confucius and the religion to which his name has been given, is that of Lao Tse and Taoism. Confucius was the practical man, Lao Tse the speculative. Resembling Confucius in his high moral tone, Lao Tse indulged in many an unverifiable speculation upon the universe and the soul,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Sacred Books of the East, vol. iii. p. xv.

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and his followers are characterised by many a coarse superstition and gross idolatry. The doctrine of Lao Tse—"translated by some," says Dr. Legge, "'The Old Philosopher,' and by others 'The Old Boy,' from a fabulous story that his mother carried him in the womb for seventy-two years, so that when he was at length cut out of it, his hair was already white"—is contained in the *Tao Te King*, which was translated into French by Stanislas Julien in 1842, into English by Dr. Chalmers, of Canton, in 1868, and into German by Reinhold von Plänckner, and also by Victor von Strauss, both in 1870.

Of Buddhism, it is only necessary to say that Buddhist missionaries penetrated into China three centuries before our era. For a time this new faith made little way, but from the date of its official recognition by the Emperor Ming Fi Ti, in the year 61 of our era, as the third religion of the Empire, Buddhism has grafted itself upon Taoism, which, to adopt a happy expression of Dr. Eitel's, is "Buddhism in indigenous costume." The principal books for the study of the religions of China will be given in the next section. The influence of Nestorian Christianity upon Buddhism, at as early a date as the sixth century of our era, is a fruitful theme, scarcely prosecuted as yet as it deserves.

Advancing to the RELIGION OF EGYPT, the story of the recovery of the lost key to the stone records of Heliopolis and Memphis and Thebes reads like a romance. For many years all that was known of the early history of the land of the Pharaohs was due to the scattered notices of Herodotus. Plato, and other Greek and Latin writers, whose testimonies had on their face an aspect of mal-observation and exaggeration. There was certainly a high probability that the hieroglyphics which covered the walls of temples and tombs might disclose many a page of the past, if only they could be interpreted; but alas! these representations of the sun and the moon, of animals and plants, of pictures of things real and symbols of things imaginary, who could hope to learn their secret? For a long time hieroglyphic was synonymous with unknowable. Then came the discovery of the famous Rosetta stone, a black tablet, with inscriptions in three

languages, one of which was Greek, and therefore intelligible, erected in honour of Ptolemy Epiphanes, 193 years before Christ. The Greek text expressly stated that the decree it preserved was engraved "in the sacred characters, in the vernacular, and in Greek." Here, then, in parallel lines were the intelligible Greek inscription, and the same inscription in two Egyptian tongues, the one hieroglyphic and the other popular. Mutilated as the tablet was, and it was very mutilated, fifteen lines of the vernacular having lost their first letters, a great part of the hieroglyphic section being lost entirely, and the end of the Greek having also been destroyed, it formed the subject of the close study of several accomplished men, and it is the lasting honour of Champollion to have discovered the true key to the complete decipherment. By concentrating his attention upon the proper names of the Rosetta stone,—and the stone presented the Greek names of Ptolemy, Cleopatra, Berenice, Pyrrha, Diogenes, Alexander, and others,—Champollion was able to build up gradually an Egyptian alphabet, which enabled him to unseal the closed treasures of temple and monument, and to lay the foundations of a grammar and dictionary. Thus a new world was opened to the student, and the old wisdom of Egypt, in which Moses was learned, was disclosed in some sort to the modern investigator of the long-buried past. A small band of devoted workers took up the work; Lepsius and Birch and Hincks and De Rougé and Brugsch, Mariette and Chabas and Goodwin, Dümichen and Lauth and Ebers and Stern and Eisenlohr, Maspero and Renouf and Naville, Wilkinson and Canon Cook and Professor Lushington. It was soon discovered that many of the remains contained religious matters, and by the careful translation and comparison of the inscriptions of obelisk and pillar, of wall and pyramid, the outlines of the old Egyptian faith are at length tolerably well understood. The statement of Herodotus is now known to be no exaggeration, for everything emphasises his words, "The Egyptians are beyond measure scrupulous in matters of religion." So, too, the words of Herodotus as to transmigration are found to be correct, when he said that "the Egyptians were also the first to say that the soul of man is immortal, and that when the

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body perishes it transmigrates through every variety of animal." "The Egyptians," says Wilkinson, "were unquestionably the most pious nation of all antiquity. The oldest monuments show their belief in a future life. And Osiris, the judge, is mentioned in tombs erected two thousand years before Christ." "Everything among the Egyptians," says M. Maury, "took the stamp of religion. Their writing was so full of sacred symbols that it could scarcely be used for any purely secular purpose. Literature and science were only branches of theology. Art laboured only in the service of worship and to glorify the gods. Religious observances were so numerous and so imperative, that the most common labours of daily life could not be performed without a perpetual reference to some priestly regulation. The Egyptian only lived to worship. The sun, when it set, seemed to him to die; and when it rose the next morning, it was a perpetual symbol of a future resurrection. Religion in Egypt became an instinct. Unaltered by the dominion of the Persians, the Ptolemies and Romans, it was of all polytheisms the most obstinate in its resistance to Christianity, and retained its devotees down to the sixth century of our era." 1 The Egyptians had temples, priests, and sacred books. Esoterically their religion was pantheistic, and exoterically polytheistic. There were unmistakable traces of an earlier monotheism, and of the common religious traditions of the race. Its most remarkable feature was the worship of animals, consequent on the doctrines of transmigration. "It so completely incarnates God," says Freeman Clarke, "as to make every type of animal existence divine; hence the worship of animals. It makes body so sacred, that the human body must not be allowed to perish." In this religion, too, a lofty morality was advocated. All that it is necessary to add is a guide to the literature upon this subject, and this will follow in its appropriate place in the next section.

Upon the northern Shemitic religions little need be said in addition to giving a list of books for the study of the faiths of Babylonia, Assyria, and their allied faiths. They all show

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Quoted from an article in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for September 1867, by Freeman Clarke in his *Ten Great Religions*, pp. 213, 214.

traces of a common origin in Mesopotamia, whilst they each pursue their characteristic development. Babylonia and Assyria differed but little in language and religion, and since the decipherment of the cuneiform inscriptions unearthed by Rich and Botta, Layard and George Smith and Theodore Pinches, the leading features of these religions are becoming better known every day. In all these faiths, again, there are traces of a primitive monotheism, and of a common series of traditions upon the origin of the world and the early history of man. In the religions of Arabia, however, we encounter a very characteristic religious development. Until the sixth century of our era, the Arabs acknowledged the common faith of their fathers, which had degenerated into a worship of spirits and fetiches, only to be designated polytheistic. came the life and labours of that extraordinary personality, Mahomet, and especially the penning of his self-styled revelations, professedly imparted verbatim by the angel Gabriel, which are embodied in the Koran. Minutely studied, it is true, this Koran is seen to be a reassertion of some of the truths and traditions of Judaism, and especially of monotheism. The principal doctrines of Mahometanism are these: (1) the acceptance of the two great dogmas that there is one God, and that Mahomet is His prophet; (2) prayer; (3) almsgiving; (4) fasting; (5) the pilgrimage to Mecca, which every free adult is bound to undertake once in his life. Islam now numbers about 180,000,000 adherents.

Next come the RELIGIONS OF INDIA, professed by nearly 200,000,000 of people, again singularly instructive from their development. At a very early date the Indo-Germans, the common ancestors of the Indians, the Persians, the Teutons, the Greeks, the Celts, and the Slavs, and whose home was originally somewhere in Central Asia, took to colonising. Leaving their primeval seat in batches, they settled some in Asia and some in Europe. The ancestors of the Indians and the Persians were apparently the last to leave, forming one people who called themselves Aryans. They had one language and one religion, if the evidence afforded by comparative philology and comparative religion is to be trusted. At length even this final Aryan race divided, part settling in Persia,

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and pursuing an independent development, and part selecting for their place of abode what is to-day called the Punjab, also entering in this way upon an independent course of develop-The earliest historical record of this Indian family is found in the oldest of those sacred books which are called the Vedas. These Vedas, the Bible of India, were written during the lapse of many years; but it is interesting to observe that their moral purity and religious elevation rise with their age. A clear conception of the moral government of the universe and a sort of monotheism appear in the Rig-Veda, the oldest of these sacred books, whilst not a trace of the later doctrines of caste and of transmigration are to be found therein. Degeneration, however, soon manifested itself, and the later parts of the Vedas are ruled by the idea of caste. The later parts of the Veda, the Brahmanas and the Upanishads, offer indeed little but a religion for the Brahmans, a pantheistic philosophy with much ritual for the few who are twice-born. Then came Buddhism. The founder of this more catholic creed, the Buddha or Enlightened One, was Siddharta, of the tribe of Sakya, who lived in the second half of the fifth century B.C. He is also known as Gautama Buddha and Sakya-Muni. Innumerable are the legends which have gathered around this remarkable man; but it is tolerably evident that this Indian reformer, whilst advocating some curious philosophy and rejecting the idea of caste and the ecclesiastical pretensions of the Brahmans, chose deliberately the life of a recluse, a celibate, and a mendicant, and preached a religion for all men, irrespective of their birth. Whoever followed him in his life of self-denial might be liberated, whether soldier or priest or farmer or servant, from sickness, from pain, from old age, and even from death and its transmigrations, attaining to Nirvana, or freedom from the law of ceaseless rebirth according to "Buddhism, in fact," as has been well said, "rejected the authority of the Veda, the whole dogmatic system of the Brahmans, their worship, penance, and hierarchy, and simply substituted for them a higher moral teaching." This religious movement, with its doctrine of equality, its charity, its toleration, had a large influence in India for a time. the course of a couple of centuries Buddhism won a great

following in India, and even despatched many missionaries to other lands. But Brahmanism did not succumb without a struggle, and in the end, having adopted the policy of so modifying its system as to appeal to the people at large, Brahmanism succeeded in expelling its rival from India. This expulsion was doubtless accelerated by the disclosure of certain disabilities in Buddhism itself, which, possessing no doctrine of God, could hardly be a religion for the masses, and which, proclaiming salvation for all, really divided men into two great classes, the ascetics and the laity, actually promising salvation only to the ascetic. The outcome of the conflict between the adherents of the rival faiths was the present form of Hinduism, which has two very different sides. To the masses Hinduism presents a polytheism of a very varied kind, Buddha himself being regarded as one of the incarnations of Vishnu, one of the Hindu Triad; to the select few, Hinduism presents a recondite doctrine of a pantheistic kind. In short, exoterically Hinduism is a vulgar polytheism, with many rites; esoterically it is a philosophic pantheism, with many schools. Jainism has many points of resemblance with Buddhism. It should be added that, although extruded from India, Buddhism has followed two characteristic lines of development known as Northern and Southern, the former that of Nepal, Thibet, China, Japan, Mongolia, and the latter that of Burmah, Siam, and Ceylon. Southern Buddhism, with the exception of certain legends concerning Buddha, remains very much to-day in teaching and ritual what it was in the days immediately succeeding Gautama's death. Northern Buddhism has, in Thibet, developed an elaborate hierarchical system which bears to the teaching of the Buddha much the same relation which Roman Catholicism has to the teaching of the Apostles. Northern Buddhism has its pope, its gorgeous ritual, its priests of many grades, and its doctrine of tradition. Hinduism now numbers about 200,000,000 of adherents, and Buddhism 430,000,000, of whom 90,000,000 are southern Buddhists, and 340,000,000 are northern Buddhists, this latter number including the vast population of China, who, though followers of Confucius and Lao Tse, are still Buddhists.

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The Parsi faith, as the ancient RELIGION OF PERSIA is often called, is a decaying faith, and now numbers less than a sixth of a million adherents. Nevertheless, Parsism, the religion of the Magi, has features of very peculiar interest. Mahometanism and Buddhism, Parsism also owes its origin to the transcendent religious influence of one man, Zerdusht, Zarathustra, or Zoroaster. Parsism has also its sacred books. the Zend-Avesta, which claim to have originated in the divine inspiration of the great Persian sage. Both Herodotus and Plutarch called attention to this Magian faith and this Magian sage, remarking with some surprise that this singular religion owned no altars, nor temples, nor images, but presented its adoration to the sun and to fire. Zoroastrianism was one of the earliest of the ancient ethnic religions to receive the attention of European scholars. This branch of scholastic research also has its romance. Anquetil du Perron, born at Paris in 1731, very early manifested a taste for Oriental study, making himself proficient in Hebrew, Arabic, and Persian. As he tells us himself in his preliminary discourse to his edition of the Zend-Avesta, having come across a fragment of those ancient books of Zoroaster in the Royal Library at Paris, he was seized with a desire to visit India, "and to learn the Zend language in which they were written, and also the Sanskrit, so as to be able to read the manuscripts in the Bibliothèque du Roi, which no one in Paris understood." He enlisted as a common soldier with this end; but the French Government, struck with his zeal, gave him his discharge, a small salary of 500 livres, and a free passage. He was but twenty-four years old when he set sail. Thus, while Clive was fighting the battles of the East India Company, and Schwartz was doing hard battle as a missionary amongst the Hindus, Du Perron set himself to learn the ancient languages upon which he had set his heart, being taught by Brahman and Parsi priests. On his return to Europe he published in 1771 his French translation of the Avesta. The beginning which Du Perron thus made has been elaborated by many other great and diligent workers, and now, after the united labours of men like Burnouf. Lassen, Spiegel, Westergaard, Haug, Bunsen, Max Müller,

and Roth, the contents of these ancient books are fairly known. Part of these books, the so-called Vendidad, bears marks of a very high antiquity indeed. The prominent feature of these books is what is commonly described as their dualism. They represent good and evil as eternal. The great problem of evil colours everything. There are also in these books very interesting traditions concerning the creation, the fall, the flood, and the other common knowledge of the races of man prior to the Dispersion.

Of the remaining Indo-Germanic religions, those of the Slavs, the Teutons, the Celts, the Greeks, and the Romans, nothing need be said beyond calling attention to the books in which these religions are best described. In every case these several branches of the primitive Aryan faith have died out under the advance of Christianity, and the religions themselves have but a historical interest.

Of the religions, numerous and instructive although they are, which have not yet been classified,—mostly savage creeds, but including some older faiths which have not yet been adequately studied, such as the Shintoism of Japan and the ancient Akkadian faith of Mesopotamia,—it is also needless to do more than call attention to the several good books which treat of them individually. In naming and characterising these books, as will be done in the next section, the history of their present study is sufficiently given.

## § 26.

BOOKS RECOMMENDED FOR THE STUDY OF ETHNIC THEOLOGY.

# I. For Introductory Study.

Saussaye, P. D. Chantepie de la, Lehrbuch der Religionsgeshichte, Freiburg, 1887, 1889, 2 vols. The first volume is translated by Beatrice S. Colyer-Fergusson, née Max Müller, as Manual of the Science of Religion, Longmans, 1891. [Four sections, viz. (1) introductory, on general questions; (2) phenomenological, discussing the meaning of the most important classes of religious phenomena; (3) ethnographic; (4) historical. Under (4) come, in vol. i., the religions of the Chinese, Egyptians, Babylonians

and Assyrians, and Hindus. In vol. ii., not yet translated, come the religions of Persia, Greece, Rome, Germany, and

Islam.

Clarke, James Freeman, Ten Great Religions: an Essay in Comparative Theology, 1st edit. 1871, 20th edit., Boston 1888, also published by Trübner, London. Second Part, A Comparison of all Religions, Boston 1883. [The first part describes the ten religions of Confucianism, Brahmanism, Buddhism, Persia, Egypt, Greece, Rome, Scandinavia, Palestine, and Arabia: in the second part are considered the origin and development of all religions, and the ideas of God, of the soul, of the origin of the world, of prayer, of inspiration, of morals, and of the future life in all religions.]

Tiele, C. P., Outlines of the History of Religion to the Spread of the Universal Religions, translated from the Dutch by J. Estlin Carpenter, 1st edit. 1877, 2nd edit. 1880, Trübner. The French edition, translated by Maurice Vernes, 1885, 12mo, has a more carefully prepared bibliography, with more complete characterisation of books. A 5th improved English edit. in 1888. Handy because of its sketches of the several faiths and its lists

of books, in spite of its extreme evolutionary theory.]

## II. For More Advanced Study.

# (1.) Serials.

Non-Christian Religious Systems, 12mo, 1877 to present, and still issuing, Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge.

DAVIDS, T. W. RHYS, Buddhism, STOBART, J. W. H., Islam and its being a Sketch of the Life and of Gautama, Teachings theBuddha.

Beal, S., Buddhism in China.
Berry, T. Sterling, Christianity and Buddhism, a Comparison and a Contrast.

Douglas, Robert K., Confucianism and Taouism.

WILLIAMS, MONIER, Hinduism.

Founder.

HAINES, CHARLES REGINALD, Islam as a Missionary Religion.

MUIR, SIR WILLIAM, The Coran, its Composition and Teaching, and the Testimony it bears to the Holy Scriptures.

TISDALL, W. St. CLAIR, The Religion of the Crescent, or Islam, its Strength, its Weakness, its Origin,

its Influence.

## The Hibbert Lectures, viz.—

1878. MAX MÜLLER, F., Lectures on | 1880. RENAN, ERNEST, Lectures on the the Origin and Growth of Religion as illustrated by the Religions of India.

1879. RENOUF, P. LE PAGE, Lectures on the Origin and Growth of Religion as illustrated by the Religion of Ancient Egypt.

Influence of the Institutions, Thought, and Culture of Rome on Christianity and the Development of the Christian Church, translated by Charles Beard.

1881. DAVIDS, T. W. RHYS, Lectures on the Origin and Growth of Religion as illustrated by some Points in the History of Indian Buddhism.

1882. Kuenen, A., National Religions and Universal Religions.

1883. Beard, Charles, The Reformation of the Sixteenth Century in its Relation to Modern Thought and Knowledge.

1884. RÉVILLE, ALBERT, Lectures on the Origin and Growth of Religion as illustrated by the Native Religions of Mexico and Peru, translated by Philip H. Wicksteed.

1885. PFLEIDERER, OTTO, Lectures on the Influence of the Apostle Paul on the Development of Christianity, translated by J. Fred. Smith.

1886. Rhys, John, Lectures on the Origin and Growth of Religion as illustrated by Celtic Heathendom.

1887. SAYCE, A. H., Lectures on the

Origin and Growth of Religion as illustrated by the Religion of the Ancient Babylonians.

1888. HATCH, EDWIN, The Influence of Greek Ideas and Usuges upon the Christian Church, edited by A. M. Fairbairn.

1891. D'ALVIELLA, COUNT GOBLET, Lectures on the Origin and Growth of the Conception of God as illustrated by Anthropology and History.

1892. Montefiore, C. G., Lectures on the Origin and Growth of Religion as illustrated by the Religion of the Ancient Hebrews.

1893. UPTON, CHARLES B., Lectures on the Bases of Religious Belief.

1894. Drummond, James, Via, Veritas, Vita, Lectures on Christianity in its Most Simple and Intelligible Form, a cheap edit. 1896.

#### Trübner's Oriental Series, Paul, 1878, and still issuing.

Haug, Martin, Essays on the Sacred Language, Writings, and Religion of the Parsis, edited by E. W. West.

Beal, S., Texts from the Buddhist Canon, commonly known as Dhammapada.

Weber, Albrecht, The History of Indian Literature, translated by John Mann and Theodor Zachariæ.

Cust, Robert N., A Sketch of the Modern Languages of the East Indies.

Kalidasa, The Birth of the War-God, translated into English Verse by Ralph T. H. Griffith.

Dowson, John, A Classical Dictionary of Hindu Mythology and Religion, Geography, History, and Literature.

Lane, Ed. William, Selections from the Koran, enlarged by Stanley Lane Poole.

WILLIAMS, MONIER, Modern India and the Indians, being a series of Impressions, Notes, and Essays.

Muir, J., Metrical Translations from Sanskrit Writers.

Eastwick, Ed. B., The Gulistan, or Rose-garden of Shiraz, translated into Prose and Verse.

Hodgson, Brian H., Miscellaneous Essays relating to Indian Subjects, 2 vols.

BIGANDET, P., The Life or Legend of Gaudama, the Buddha of the Burmese, 2 vols,

| EDKINS, J., Chinese Buddhism, a | Volume of Sketches, Historical and | Critical.

Cust, Robert N., Linguistic and Oriental Essays.

FAUSBÖLL, V., Buddhist Birth Stories, or Jataka Tales, translated from Pali by T. W. Rhys Davids.

Hershon, Paul Isaac, A Talmudic Miscellany, or a Thousand and One Extracts from the Talmud, the Midrashim, and the Kabbalah.

CHAMBERLAIN, BASIL HALL, The Classical Poetry of the Japanese.

Budge, Ernest A., The History of Esarhaddon, translated from the Cuneiform Inscriptions, with Grammatical Analysis of each word.

Redhouse, Jas. W., The Mesnevi, translated and the Poetry Versified, in English.

Long, J., Eastern Proverbs and Emblems, illustrating Old Truths. Arnold, Edwin, Indian Poetry.

Faber, Ernst, The Mind of Mencius, translated from the German by A. B. Hutchinson.

BARTH, A., The Religions of India. DAVIES, JOHN, Hindu Philosophy,

Jacob, G. A., A Manual of Hindu Pantheism, Vedantasara,

HAHN, THEOPHILUS, Tsuni-Hgoam, the Supreme Being of the Khoi-khoi. WHERRY, E. M., A Comprehensive

WHERRY, E. M., A Comprehensive Commentary to the Quran, to which is prefixed Sale's Preliminary Discourse, annotated, 4 vols.

Davies, John, The Bhagavadgita, translated.

Whinfield, E. H., The Quatrains of Omar Khayyam, translated.

GOUGH, ARCH. ED., The Philosophy of the Upanishads and Ancient Indian Metaphysics.

Tiele, C. P., A Comparative History of the Egyptian and Mesopotamian

Religions.

GRIFFITH, T. H., Yusuf and Zulaikha, a Poem by Jami, translated from the Persian into English verse.

Abel, Carl, Linguistic Essays.

COWELL, E. B., and GOUGH, A. E., The Sarva-Darsana-Samgraha, or Review of the Different Systems of Hindu Philosophy, by Madhava Acharya.

Schiefner, F. Anton von, Tibetan Tales derived from Indian Sources, done into English from the German

by W. R. S. Ralston.

Rockhill, W. Woodville, Udanavarga, being the Northern Buddhist Version of Dhammapada, translated from the Tibetan.

PHAYRE, SIR ARTHUR P., A History of Burma.

CUST, ROBERT N., A Sketch of the Modern Languages of Africa, in 2 vols.

Tiele, C. P., Outlines of the History of Religion to the Spread of the Universal Religions, translated from the Dutch by J. Estlin

from Carpenter. W. HUNTER, W., The Indian Empire: its History, People, and Products.

Hoernle, A. F. Rudolf, Upasa-kadasasutra, A Jain Story Book,

translated from Sanskrit.

Beal, S., Buddhist Records of the Western World, in 2 vols., translated from the Chinese.

Ballantyne, J. R., The Aphorisms of the Sankhya Philosophy of Kapila,

edit. by Fitzedward Hall.

ROCKHILL, W. W., The Life of the Buddha and the Early History of his Order, derived from Tibetan Works.

ARNOLD, EDWIN, Indian Idylls, from the Sanskrit of the Mahabharata.

GRAY, JAMES, Burmese Proverbs and Maxims.

Burnell, A. C., Manava-Dharma-Castra, or Laws of Manu, a new translation.

Sacred Books of the East, translated by various Oriental scholars, and edited by F. Max Müller, Oxford, 1879 to 1896 (still issuing).

Vols. 1 and 15. The Upanishads, translated by F. Max Müller. [Ancient Vedic religious books.]

Vols. 2 and 14. The Sutras of Apastamba and Gautama, translated by G. Bühler. [Ancient Buddhist

law books in prose.]

Vols. 3, 16, 27, 28. The Sacred Books of China. The Texts of Confucianism, translated by James Legge: and vols. 39 and 40, The Texts of Taoism.

Vols. 4 and 23. The Zend-Avesta, parts i. and ii., translated by James Darmesteter; vol. 31, part iii., translated by L. H. Mills. [The

religion of Zoroaster.]

Vols. 5, 18, and 24. Pahlavi Texts, parts i. and ii., translated by E. W. West. [Books of the Revived

Zoroastrian religion.]
Vols. 6 and 9. The Quran, translated by E. H. Palmer. [Mohammedanism.

Vol. 7. The Institutes of Vishnu, translated by Julius Jolly. [Ancient Hindu law book in prose.]

Vol. 8. The Bhagavadgita, translated by Kashinath Trimbak Telang.

[Hinduism.]

Vol. 10. Dhammapada, translated by F. Max Müller, and Sutta Nipata, translated by V. Fausböll. [Two books of the Buddhist sacred books in Pali,

Vol. 11. Buddhist Suttas, translated by Rhys Davids. [Several additional books of the Buddhist sacred books in Pali.]

Vols. 12, 26, 41, 43, and 44. The Satapatha-Brahmana, translated by Julius Eggeling. [Ancient Vedic

religious books.

Vols. 13, 17, and 20. Vinaya Texts, translated by Rhys Davids and Oldenberg. Hermann [Buddhist sacred books in Pali.]

Vol. 19. The Fo-sho-hing-tsan-king, a Life of Buddha by Arraghosha Bodhisattva, translated from Sanskrit into Chinese by Dharmaraksha, A.D. 420, and from Chinese into English by Samuel Beal. [Chinese Buddhism.]

Vol. 21. The Saddharma Pundarika, translated by H. Kern. [Buddhist

sacred books in Sanskrit.]

Vols. 22 and 45. Gaina-Sutras, translated by Hermann Jacobi, part i. [Jain sacred books in Prakrit.]

Vol. 25. Manu, translated by Georg

Bühler. [Hinduism.]

Vols. 29 and 30. The Grihya-Sutras, Rules of Vedic Domestic Ceremonies; part i., translated by Hermann Oldenberg; part ii., translated by F. Max Müller. [Ancient Vedic books.

Vols. 32 and 48. Vedic Hymns, translated by F. Max Müller. [Ancient

Vedic books.

Vol. 33. The Minor Law-books, translated by Julius Jolly. [Hinduism.] Vols. 34, 38, and 46. The Vedanta

Sutras, with the Commentary by Sankarakarya, translated by G. Thibaut. [Hinduism.]

Vols. 35 and 36. The Questions of King Milinda, translated from the Pali by T. W. Rhys Davids.

[Buddhism.]

Vols. 37 and 47. The Contents of the Nasks, as stated in the Eighth and Ninth Books of the Dinkard, translated by E. W. West. [Parsism.]

Vol. 42. Hymns of the Atharva-veda, translated by M. Bloomfield. [Ancient

Vedic books.

Vol. 49. Buddhist Mahayana Texts, translated by F. Max Müller, E. B. Cowell, and J. Takakusu.

Revue de l'Histoire de Religion, published bi-monthly since 1880, Paris. [An unsectarian review devoted to ethnic religions, containing original articles, periodical summaries written by specialists upon the recent literature in the several branches, reviews, and brief accounts of the contents of periodicals. It is published by the Trustees of the Musée Guimet, founded at Lyons by M. Emile Guimet, and then removed to Paris, and placed under the Minister of Public Instruction. Its aims are threefold-the formation of a library and a museum of ethnic theology, the publication of annals and of this review, and the institution of a school of Oriental studies.]

Annales du Musée Guimet, published at intervals from 1880 on, Paris, Leroux, 4to.

Vols. 1, 2, 4, 7, 10, 29, and 30. MÉLANGES, Articles on Ethnic Theology by many writers.

Vol. 3, Schlagintweit, Le Buddhisme au Tibet, translated from the English by L. de Milloué.

Vol. 5. Feer, Léon, Fragments Extraits du Kandjour, traduits du tibétain. Vols. 6, 19. Foucaux, Ph. Ed., Le

Lalita Vistara, traduction française. Vols. 8, 23. PHILASTRE, P. L. F., Le Yi-king, traduit du chinois en français.

Vols. 9, 16. LEFÉBURE, E., Les Hypogées Royaux de Thèbes. Vols. 11, 12. Groot, J. J. M. DE,

La Religion Populaire des Chinois. Vol. 13. Schoebel, Ch., Le Ramayana

au point de vue religieux, philosophique, et moral.

Vol. 14. AMÉLINEAU, E., Essai sur le Gnosticisme Egyptien, ses développements, son origine égyptienne.

Vol. 15. HARLEZ, C. DE, Siao-Hio, La Petite Etude ou Morale de la Jeunesse, traduit du chinois en français.

Vols. 17, 25. AMÉLINEAU, E., Monuments pour servir à l'histoire de l'Egypte Chrétien au IVe Siècle, Histoire de S. Pakhome et de ses communautés, documents coptes et arabes inédits, publics et traduits par, Vol. 18. FEER, LÉON, Avadana Çataka,

cent légendes bouddhiques, traduites

du sanscrit.

Vol. 20. Harlez, C. De, Textes

chinois et commentés.

Vols. 21, 22, and 24. DARMESTETER, Jas., Le Zend-Avesta, traduction nouvelle.

Taoistes, traduits des originaux | Vols. 26, 27. Amélineau, E., Histoire de la sépulture et des funerailles en Egypte.

Vol. 28. FOURNEREAU, L., Le Siam Ancien.

Bibliothèque de Vulgarisation, 12mo, another publication of the Musée Guimet, 1890, etc., and still issuing.

Vol. 1. AMÉLINEAU, E., Les Moines Egyptiens.

Vol. 2. MILLOUÉ, L. DE, Précis de l'Histoire des Religions.

Vol. 3. Sayce, Les Héteens, Histoire d'un Empire Oublié, traduit de l'Anglais par J. Menant.

Vol. 4. Dumoutier, LesSymboles, les Emblèmes, et les Accessoires du Culte chez Annamites.

Vol. 5. MENANT, J., Les Yézidis, les Adorateurs du Diable.

Vol. 6. Bouinais et Paulus, Le Culte des Morts dans l'Annam et dans l'Extrème Orient.

Vol. 7. AMÉLINEAU, E., Résumé de l'Histoire de l'Egypte.

Die Grossen Religionen und Glaubensbekentnisse des Ostens, 12mo, Otto Schulze, Berlin, 1880, and still issuing.

KAEGI, ADOLF, Der Rigreda, die älteste Literatur der Inder, 1880, 2nd edit. 1881.

TRUMPP, ERNEST, Die Religion der Sikhs, nach den Quellen dargestellt, 1881.

KERN, HEINRICH, Der Buddhismus und

seine Geschichte in Indien, eine Darstellung der Lehren und Geschichte der buddhistischen Kirche, translated by Hermann Jacobi, 2 vols., 1882-84.

Krehl, Ludolf, Das Leben und die Lehre des Muhammed, 1 Theil, Das Leben, 1884.

Darstellungen aus den Gebiete der nichtchristlichen Religionsgeschichte, Münster, 1890, and still issuing.

- 1. HARDY, EDMUND, Der Buddhismus nach älteren Pali-Werken dargestellt, 1890.
- 2. Krauss, Fried. S., Volksglaube und religiöser Brauch der Südslaven, 1890.

3. Wiedemann, A., Die Religionen der

alten Ægypter, 1890.

4. WLISLOCKI, HEINRICH VON, Volksglaube und religiöser Brauch der Zigeuner, 1891.

5, 6. SCHNEIDER, WILH., Die Religion der afrikanischen Naturvölker, 1891.

7. GRIMME, HUBERT, Mohammed,

1 Teil, Das Leben, 1892. Teil, Einleitung in den Koran, System der koranischen Theologie,

8. WLISLOCKI, H. VON, Volksglaube und religiöser Brauch der Magyaren,

1893.

9, 10. HARDY, EDMUND, Die vedischbrahmanische Periode der Religion des alten Indiens, nach den Quellen dargestellt, 1893.

12. DVORAK, RUDOLF, Chinas Religionen, 1 Teil, Confucius und

seine Lehre, 1895.

Handbooks on the History of Religions, edited by Morris Jastrow, Boston, U.S.A., 1895, and still issuing.

- 1895.
- 3. Saussaye, P. D. Chantepie de LA, The Religion of the Ancient Teuton, 1896.
- Hopkins, Ed. Washburn, The Religions of India, 1895.
   Jastrow, Morris, The Religion of Babylonia and Assyria,
   Hopkins, Ed. Washburn, The Religion of Persia, 1896.
   Toy, C. H., Introduction to the History of Religions, 1896.

6. Stevenson, Mrs. Cornelius, The Religion of Egypt, promised 1897.

7. PETERS, JOHN P., The Religion of Israel, promised 1897.

## (2.) Of Ethnic Theology in general.

Note.—The author has not felt it desirable to insert the various editions of the Sacred Books in the original tongues. Those who desire to read sacred books in the originals, will find guidance to the various editions in the Journal of the Asiatic Society, in the bulletins of the Revue de l'Histoire des Religions, and in some bibliographical monographs specified at the beginning of the several sub-sections of this section, and to the necessary philological apparatus in Trübner's Catalogue of Dictionaries and Grammars of the Principal Languages and Dialects of the World.

Döllinger, J. J. Ign. von, Heidenthum und Judenthum, Vorhalle zur Geschichte des Christenthums, Regensburg 1857; translated by N. Darnell, and published under the title of The Gentile and Jew in the Courts of the Temple of Christ, 2 vols., Longmans, 1865-67. [Depicts the entire range of paganism, as well as

Judaism, at and before the coming of Christ.]

Hardwick, Charles, Christ and other Masters: an Historical Inquiry into some of the chief Parallelisms and Contrasts between Christianity and the Religious Systems of the Ancient World, 1st edit., 2 vols. 12mo, Macmillan, 1858, 4th edit. 8vo, 1875, with Memoir. [Carries out its plan with respect to the religions of India, China, America, Oceania, Egypt, and Medo-Persia.

Müller, F. Max, Chips from a German Workshop, vol. i., Essays on the Science of Religion, Longmans, 1867. [Fifteen essays on phases of ethnic theology, with an important preface. This first edition is better than the second, in 4 vols., 1894-1896, which

omits some of the ethnic articles.

Introduction to the Science of Religion, Four Lectures delivered at the Royal Institution, with Two Essays on False Analogies, and the Philosophy of Mythology, Longmans, 1873. [Lectures on some preliminary points, such as the value of the comparative method in religious science, the classification of religions, and the divine education of the race by its several religions, largely illustrated by examples from sacred books.

- Lectures on the Origin and Growth of Religion as illustrated by the Religions of India, Hibbert Lectures for 1878, new edit., Longmans, 1882. [Defines religion, argues the date of fetichism, traces growth of religion in India, with special

reference to its earlier characteristics.]

— Gifford Lectures. [See § 20 (1.).] Réville, A., Prolégomènes de l'Histoire de Religion, Paris, 1st edit. 1880, 4th edit. 1886; translated, with an introduction by Max Müller, under the title of Prolegomena of the History of Religion, Williams & Norgate, 1885. [Defines and classifies in the first part, and in the second treats of myth, symbolism, sacrifice, priesthood, and prophecy, as seen in religions, and their relations to theology, philosophy, morals, art, civilisation, and science.

RÉVILLE, A., Histoire des Religions, Les Religions des Peuples Noncivilisés, vols. i. and ii., Paris 1883. [Expounds the principles, forms, and tendencies of religion among non-civilised peoples, viz. the Negroes, the aborigines of the two Americas, the Polynesians, and the Finns.]

— Histoire des Religions, Les Religions du Mexique, de l'Amérique Centrale, et du Perou, Paris 1885. [Continuation of

the general plan.

-— La Religion Chinoise, Paris 1889. [Continuation also.]

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Hellenes, and Israelites, to Christianity.

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## (3.) Of the Religions of China.

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Three Religions of the Chinese, 3rd edit. 1884, Tribner, 1st edit. 1859. [Statement by an eye-witness of the three State religions of China,—Confucianism, Buddhism, Taoism,—with some remarks on Mahometans and Jews in China,]

Douglas, Robert K., Confucianism and Taoism, 12mo, 1879; see (1.) Non-Christian Religious Systems. [A brief survey of the life and teachings of Confucius and Mencius, of the Taoist books, and

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Johnson, Samuel, Oriental Religions, and their Relation to Universal Religion—China, in 2 vols., Trübner, 1883. [Presents the characteristics of all Mr. Johnson's work, of clearness, thoroughness, interest, and speculativeness.]

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Plath, J. H., Die Religion und der Cultus der alten Chinesen, in two parts, Munich 1862; Confucius und seiner Schüler, Leben und Lehren, in 4 vols., viz., (i.) Historische Einleitung, Munich 1869; (ii.) Leben des Confucius, Munich 1870; (iii.) Die Schüler des Confucius, Munich 1873; (iv.) Sämmtliche Aussprüche des Confucius und seiner Schülern, systematisch geordnet, vol. i.,

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— Buddhist Records of the Western World, translated from the Chinese of Hinen Tsiang (A.D. 629), in 2 vols., Trübner, 1884; see (1.) Oriental Series. [Records of the travels of various Chinese Buddhist pilgrims who visited India during the early centuries of the Christian era.]

— The Romantic Story of Buddha, Trübner, 1872. [From a translation into Chinese made by a Buddhist priest about the end of sixth century A.D. from the Sanskrit life of Buddha,

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Christian Religious Systems.]

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## (4.) Of the Religion of Egypt.

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Records of the Past, being English Translations of the Assyrian and Egyptian Monuments, in 12 vols. 12mo, 1874, etc.; vols. ii., iv.,

vi., viii., x., xii., contain Egyptian texts.

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# (5.) Of the Shemitic Religions.

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#### (b) Assyrian and Babylonian Religions.

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(4.).

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## (d) Of Mahometanism.

Note.—Consult the Bulletin of the Revue de l'Histoire des Religions, vol. x. pp. 197, etc.

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- Stobart, J. W. H., Islam and its Founder, see Non-Christian Religious Systems, (1.) of this section. [Presents summarily the pre-Mahometan history of Arabia, the life and teachings of Mahomet, and the spread of Islam.]
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# (6.) Of the Religions of India.

## (a) Of the Religions of India generally.

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HILLEBRANDT, ALFRED, Vedische Mythologie, vol. i., Soma und

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des alten Indien, 1893. [See (1.) Darstellungen.]

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Phillips, Maurice, The Teaching of the Vedas, what Light does it throw on the Origin and Development of Religion, Longmans,

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#### (c) Buddhism.

(Compare (3 d) of this section, on Chinese Buddhism.)

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Le Lotus de la Bonne Loi, traduit du Sanscrit, accompagné d'un commentaire et de vingt et un mémoires relatifs au Buddhisme, Paris, 4to, 1852. [A translation of this characteristic canonical book of the Buddhists, with lengthy notes and appendices, most of the latter dealing with prominent features of Buddhism. The same book has been translated by Kern in

Sacred Books of the East,

Köppen, C. F., Die Religion des Buddha und ihre Entstehung,

Berlin 1857.

BIGANDET, P., The Life or Legend of Gaudama, the Buddha of the Burmese with annotations, the Ways to Neibban [Nirvana], and Notice on the Phonguies or Burmese Monks, 1st edit., Rangoon 1858, 3rd edit. in 2 vols., Trübner, 1880. [Presents, from original sources of information, a life of Buddha, with his principal teachings, notes which convey detailed notices of Buddhism in general and particularly in Burmah, brief accounts of the former existences of Buddha, and descriptions of the chief points of discipline of the Buddhist monks.

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— Eastern Monachism, an Account of the Origin, Laws, Discipline, Sacred Writings, Mysterious Rites, Religious Ceremonies, and Present Circumstances of the Order of Mendicants founded by Gotama Buddha, compiled from Singhalese MSS. and other original sources of information, 1850, Partridge.

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des Cakya Simha, translated, part 1, Berlin 1874.

GRIMBLOT, P., Sept Suttas Pális, tirés du Digha-Nikaya, traductions diverses anglaises et françaises, Paris 1876.

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— Sutta Nipata; or the Dialogues and Discourses of Gotama Buddha, translated from the Pali, with introduction and notes, Trübner, 1874. Davids, T. W. Rhys, Buddhism, being a Sketch of the Life and Teachings of Gautama, the Buddha. [See (1.) Non-Christian Religious Systems. Brief presentation of the life and doctrines of

Buddha, and the subsequent development of Buddhism.]

— Buddhist Birth Stories, or Jataka Tales, the oldest collection of Folli-lore extant, for the first time edited in the original Pali by V. Fausböll, and translated by T. W. Rhys Davids, Trübner, 1880. A translation of curious Buddhist Scriptures, containing many old stories, fables, and fairy tales connected with Buddha, and supposed to have been told by him.]

— Hibbert Lectures for 1881. [Lectures on the Place of Buddhism in the Development of Religious Thought, on the Canonical Books of Buddhism, on the Theory of Karma, on the Lives of Buddha, on his Order, and on Later Forms of Buddhism; see (1.).

Arnold, Edwin, The Light of Asia, or the Great Renunciation, being the Life and Teaching of Gautama, Prince of India and Founder of Buddhism, as told in Verse by an Indian Buddhist, 1st edit., Trübner, 12mo, 1878; edition illustrated from Buddhist antiquities, in 4to, 1885. [A poetical presentation by an imaginary Buddhist priest.

OLDENBERG, H., Buddha, sein Leben, seine Lehre, seine Gemeinde, Berlin 1881, 2nd edit. 1890; the first edition was translated as Buddha, His Life, His Doctrine, and His Order, Williams & Norgate, 1882. Of the preparation for Buddha, and of his life, teachings, and order, with three appendices, two dealing with the original sources.

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[Attacks the views of Rhys Davids.]

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SINNETT, A. P., Esoteric Buddhism, 12mo, Triibner, 1st edit. 1882, 5th edit. 1885. [Claims to present the doctrines of Buddhism as secretly held by the highest order of Buddhists; theosophist.]

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world of Buddhism.]

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# (d) Hinduism.

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tradition.

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## (7.) Of the Religion of Persia—Zoroastrianism.

Note.—See Trübner's American and Oriental Literary Record, 20th July 1865, for a contribution towards a bibliography; and consult the article by Léon Feer in the Revue de l'Histoire des Religions, vol. v. pp. 289, etc., De l'Histoire et de l'Etat présent des études Zoroastriennes ou Mazdéennes, particulièrement en France. A full bibliography of works on the Avesta and on the Parsi religion is given in De Harlez, Avesta, Introd. pp. ccxxxiv-ccxlii.

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## (8.) Of the Religion of the Letto-Slavs.

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Krauss, Fried. S., Volksglaube und religiöser Brauch der Südslaven,

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#### (9.) Of the Ancient Teutons.

Note.—Consult the Bulletin in the Revue de l'Histoire des Religions, vol. iv. pp. 46, etc.

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excellent popularisation of Grimm's work.

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#### (10.) Of the Ancient Greeks.

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## (11.) Of the Religion of the Ancient Romans.

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#### (12.) Of the Religion of the Ancient Celts.

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valuable matter.

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#### (13.) Of the Religions of Australia and the Pacific.

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## (14.) Of the Religions of the Native Races of America.

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- American Hero Myths, a Study in the Native Religions of the

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#### (15.) Of the Religions of the Native Races of Africa.

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Tylor, E. B., Primitive Culture, Researches into the Development of Mythology, Philosophy, Religion, Language, Art, and Custom, 2 vols., 3rd edit. 1891, Murray. [Advocates a Darwinian view of

the questions of which it treats.

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[Explains the phenomena of religion by the principle of an

atheistic evolution.]

Massey, Gerald, A Book of the Beginnings, containing an attempt to recover and reconstitute the lost origins of the myths and mysteries, types and symbols, religion and language, with Egypt for the mouthpiece and Africa as the birthplace, 2 vols. 4to, Williams & Norgate, 1881; also The Natural Genesis, or Second Part of a Book of the Beginnings, 2 vols. 4to, 1883.

Forlow, J. G. R., Rivers of Life, or Sources and Streams of the Faiths of Man in all Lands, showing the Evolution of Faiths from the rulest symbolisms to the latest spiritual developments, with maps, illustrations, and separate charts of jaith streams, 2 vols. 4to, Quaritch, 1883. [Its standpoint is the naturalistic theory of development, but it is full of matter, gained largely from personal investigation in India and elsewhere.]

Théron, E., Etude sur les Religions Anciennes, 12mo, Montpellier, 1884. [Attempts to show four phases in all ethnic religions, viz., (1) monotheism, (2) naturalism, (3) national religion, and (4) re-

action, shown popularly by coarse idolatry and philosophically by

toleration of all beliefs.

Broglie, Abbé de, Problèmes et Conclusions de l'Histoire des Religions, Paris, 12mo, 1885. [Essays upon the prominent types of religion, showing how their good features are accentuated and their evil features avoided in Christianity.]

Lang, Andrew, Custom and Myth, 2nd edit., 12mo, 1885, Longmans. [Regards myths as the result of the natural working of

the savage mind.

Schneider, W., Die Naturvölker, Missverständnisse, Missdeutungen, und Misshandlungen, 2 vols., Paderborn, 1885–86.

MAYER, MAXIMILIAN, Die Giganten und Titanen in der antiken Sage

und Kunst, Berlin 1887.

Brace, C. Loring, The Unknown God, or Inspiration among Pre-Christian Races, Hodder, 1890. [Materials for an ethnic doctrine

of God.]

Frazer, J. G., The Golden Bough, a Study in Comparative Religion, 2 vols., Macmillan, 1890. [A study in the tree-worship of the primitive Aryan religion.]

## DIVISION III.

#### BIBLICAL THEOLOGY.

A. §§ 27-30.—BIBLICAL THEOLOGY IN GENERAL.

§ 27.

NAME, DEFINITION, AND PROBLEM OF BIBLICAL THEOLOGY.

TE now advance to the third branch of theological science, the science or sciences of the Bible. Bible occupies a position amongst sacred books altogether unique. To class it among the Sacred Books of the East would be to ignore, not only its own claims, but the numerous and varied facts which substantiate those claims, and which remove the Holy Scriptures of the Old and New Testaments to a category all their own. As a matter of fact, too, the Bible has been submitted to more protracted and careful investigation of a scientific kind than any other religious books, however ancient or honoured; and much more exact acquaintance can be readily obtained with the theology of the Bible than with the theology of the Koran or the Vendidad. Indeed, the organism of the Biblical sciences which together make up Biblical theology may be constituted, as we have seen, into a type of that series of studies which can alone exhaust the theological researches upon any other sacred book.

Biblical Theology, then, is the science—or more accurately the group of sciences—concerned with the facts presented by the Bible. This, it is necessary to say once more, is not the only meaning which has been attached to the term, because, like theology itself, as has been remarked more than once, Biblical theology has been used in a wider and a narrower sense, at one time being understood to signify the sciences of all the facts afforded by the Bible, and at another time simply the science of one class of those facts, namely, the doctrinal declarations of the Old and New Testaments. this narrower significance the name Biblical Dogmatics is used in this book—first, for the sake of preserving a parallel terminology throughout, and secondly, inasmuch as, if Biblical theology be restricted to the science of Biblical doctrine, no other equally appropriate name presents itself for the larger science. Biblical theology treats, then, according to scientific method, of everything pertaining to the interpretation and exposition of Scripture. By collecting, classifying, examining, and reasoning upon the data supplied by the Old and New Testaments, an organism of sciences is built up, to which collectively the name of Biblical Theology is given.

This group of sciences has sometimes been called Exegetical Theology; but whilst the name is not wholly inappropriate, it is not so exact as Biblical theology. There is an exegetical theology of the Koran, or the Vedas, or the Tripitaka, or even of the dialogues of Plato.

The PROBLEM of the Biblical sciences follows from the above definition. In the devotional use of Scripture we withdraw for a while "from the thoughts and cares of the world, to enter into a pure and holy atmosphere, where the God of love and redemption reveals Himself to the heart, and where the simplest believer can place himself by the side of the psalmist, the prophet, or the apostle, in that inner sanctuary where no sound is heard but the gracious accents of divine promise, and the sweet response of assured and humble faith." But we are concerned at present with the scientific use, which is thorough instead of fragmentary, consecutive and not occasional, accurate rather than hortatory, true for

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Robertson Smith, The Old Testament in the Jewish Church, p. 6.

all, not merely personal. This scientific use is an application of the inductive method under the special circumstances of the case. The Bible is an ancient record, written in dead tongues, and transmitted to us through many vicissitudes, and it is this antique sacred book which is to be examined according to the inductive method.

It is manifest upon a moment's reflection that when we are studying any ancient book, the further we are removed from the period in which its author or authors wrote, the more difficult it is to discover the circumstances in which they were placed, the peculiar objects they had in view, the situation and sentiments of the original readers, and even the exact bearing of the several arguments. Further, if, in addition to distance in time, we are removed in space, if the laws and customs of the birthplace of the book had little resemblance to ours, if its language and forms of expression are little analogous to those in use amongst ourselves, the difficulty of interpretation must be yet more evident. Let us remember, too, what a work we have in the Bible, composed partly in Greek, partly in Hebrew; containing histories, legislation, poetry, prophecy, doctrine, more than fiteen hundred years intervening between the composition of its earliest and its latest book, and a still larger interval separating its latest book from the present age, written, too, in a country and under circumstances wholly different from our own. Anyone will see that these ancient Oriental writings demand some clearness of view for their apprehension and much perseverance. Literature of our own times we are able to follow and comprehend by a sort of instinct, because of our participation in the language, thoughts, and mental atmosphere of the present. When, however, we are examining the literary productions of long past ages, the great desideratum is to abolish by all possible expedients the difference of standpoint between ourselves and the original writers. Hence the problem of Biblical theology. It is, first, to ascertain the several expedients by which the chasms of time and distance may be bridged, and, next, by the application of these expedients to reap the rich harvest of impregnable knowledge of the Holy Writings, their contents, their spirit, and their potentialities.

The problem, then, of Biblical theology is to investigate and to appropriate the contents of the Bible by treating it at the outset just as other literary relics of a buried past are treated. All scientific literary critics are agreed that their primary concern must be with the criticism of the transmitted text, that is to say, with a reasoned estimate in general and in detail of the value and reliableness of the ancient text preserved to us. The Bible has to be treated, they point out, to start with, like an edition of Homer or Thucydides, and the first step in any scientific treatment is to ascertain as far as possible, by the comparison of manuscripts, and all the legitimate processes of what is called textual criticism, what were the very words of the poet of the Iliad, or the historian of the Peloponnesian War. Even if in the end the Bible be elevated to a category all its own, at the outset, in any scientific method of investigation, the Bible must be submitted to the same treatment as every ancient book. Not possessing the autographs of the writers of the Old and New Testaments, but only numerous and varying transcripts of many dates, the first step must be to critically weigh these extant copies with the appropriate appliances. Then, having utilised the processes of textual criticism, the scientific investigator proceeds still to treat the Bible like any other ancient literary relic, and endeavours, in the next place, to ascertain the exact meaning of the text he has criticised. For this purpose he calls in the aid of philology,—the laws of Hebrew and Greek grammar, and the facts of Hebrew and Greek lexicology. With these aids, together with the other helps of the practised translator, such as the analogy of Scripture, the perception of style, the resuscitation of habits and customs, the correction for age, in each of which considerable room is found for the most wary literary instincts and the most skilled culture, inquiry is held into the meaning of isolated passages. From the comprehension of brief passages advance is then made to the understanding of sections, chapters, books, collections of books. When a fair acquaintance has been gained by these ordinary exegetical methods of the significance of Scripture, what may be called the higher or specialised exegesis follows, and an attempt may be made to prosecute individual lines of

investigation, to apprehend some phase of the doctrine or history or other contents of the entire Bible. In this manner such sciences are framed as those of Biblical history, dogmatics, ethics. When the entire contents of the Bible have been ascertained, classified, and arranged in due order in one science, which is a collection of several sciences, Biblical theology has reached its goal.

If this statement of the general problem of the Biblicotheological sciences requires any further addition at the present stage, it is this,—a word of encouragement to the beginner. It is not necessary for him to reconstruct these sciences from the foundation; he has simply to enter into and enjoy the fruit of the labours of many generations of workers. Nevertheless, whilst he has not to build everywhere from the foundations, he must test everywhere, and not take the reliableness of all previous work on trust. In this work of testing, the primary need is a precise conception of the method of the several branches of investigation involved.

#### § 28.

## UTILITY OF THE STUDY OF THE GROUP OF SCIENCES CALLED BIBLICAL THEOLOGY,

If the laborious investigation briefly sketched in the preceding section appear supererogatory, pleas may be put in for such a scientific study of the Bible, both because of its essential importance,—because the Bible is what it is,—and because of its importance to the theologian.

On the one hand, the Bible is deserving of the closest and the most careful study because of the character of its contents. For, first, the Bible is attractive as literature. Its portrayal of character is realistic; it is free in a remarkable degree from the vanity and egotism of the literary class; events are allowed to speak for themselves without verbal colouring; there is a dignity as well as a simplicity everywhere which does not descend to comedy or satire;

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there is an unparalleled naturalness in every form of composition adopted by the numerous writers: these and many other features place the Bible on the highest pinnacle of literary excellence. As Sir William Jones, himself no mean critic or scholar, has said, "the collection of tracts which we call from their excellence the Scriptures, contain (independently of a divine origin) more true sublimity, more exquisite beauty, purer morality, more important history, and finer strains both of poetry and eloquence, than could be collected within the same compass from all other books that were ever composed in any age or any idiom: the two parts of which the Scriptures consist are connected by a chain of compositions which bear no resemblance in form or style to any that can be produced from the stores of Grecian, Indian, Persian, or even Arabian learning." <sup>1</sup>

Then, SECONDLY, the Bible declares itself the record of divine revelation. What God hath spoken in many ways and in many portions by the mouths of His chosen prophets, words which are "profitable for teaching, for reproof, for correction, for instruction which is in righteousness," professedly is written here.

Again, THIRDLY, the Bible has a peculiar usefulness in the fostering of the spiritual life, and the more accurate our knowledge, the more well-grounded becomes its devotional use.

Nor, FOURTHLY, should we forget the remarkable universality of the Bible. As Henry Rogers so strikingly pointed out, the reception accorded to the Bible has been wonderfully independent of race; this book has evoked in numerous lands a prodigious literature; this book has become a favourite source of quotation in many times and among many people; the poetry, the sculpture, the painting, the music of different nationalities have received inspiration from this book; this book has shown itself capable of translation into all tongues, becoming straightway an example and model of literary style; by comparison with other books, sacred and profane, its humanness and its divinity become increasingly clearer. "To find," he justly says, "a parallel to the case of

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Works, vol. iii. p. 183, edit. 1807.

the Bible, we must see a collection of many writings-all written by one of the most obscure and despised nations spontaneously accepted as a unique repository of divine and moral wisdom, not by one tribe or nation only, but among many, and these of the most diverse races, of every conceivable variety in local position, historic origin, religious belief, tradition, and language; not during a period of barbarism only, but in ages of the greatest knowledge, learning, and refinement; not by the vulgar and ignorant only among these various nations and races, but by multitudes of the loftiest and most accomplished minds; not by such as are led by tradition merely, and who give an otiose consent accordingly, but by men who have come to their convictions after the most searching scrutiny as to the evidence of that which has thus enthralled them; not where error is so consecrated by law, and so fenced from all opposition, that nothing can be said against it, but where hostile criticism has had full liberty to do its worst." For reasons such as these,—its literary excellence, its revealed character, its devotional inspiration, its universality,—if the Bible is worth studying at all, it is worth studying with all possible appliances and aids, in a word scientifically.

But, ON THE OTHER HAND, seeing that the Bible cannot be neglected by the student of theology without loss, he too has an incentive to carry on his researches with all the aids he can command, for the scientific study of the Bible is the goal of some theological studies, and the starting-point of others.

The truths of natural theology, FIRST, have their complement in those of the Bible, and he who accepts the doctrines of God, of man, and of sin that are taught by nature, and refuses to examine the evidence on which developed forms of the same doctrines are taught in the Bible, can be called nothing less than unscientific. As surely as the Bible points back to the light that lighteth every man that cometh into the world, that universal light points on to the revelations of Scripture. At least so many rightly contend. The very

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The Superhuman Origin of the Bible, Lecture VIII., on the Exceptional Position of the Bible in the World.

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contention, then, necessitates that, whatever the ultimate decision, whether for or against the exceptional character of the contents of the Bible, those contents should be studied in as scientific a manner as modern research renders possible.

If this is the only logical course open to the investigator of the religious teaching of nature, how much more is such a course imperative upon the student of the extra-Biblical religions of the world! Here again the scientific study of ethnic religion necessitates, if there is to be either certainty or completeness, the scientific study of Biblical religion. Bible is but one of the sacred books of the world, and if it claims a special inspiration as its source, so do many other sacred books; so says one student of ethnic theology. The Bible stands forth amongst all the religious books of the universe as exceptional in its origin and unique in its influence; so another student of ethnic theology asserts. In this place it is not needful to discuss, still less to settle, the rival claims. All that it is necessary to say is, that neither one side nor the other may rest content with a superficial study of the Bible. Before definite and sure conclusions can be arrived at, the Bible must be investigated with all the aids to be gained from scientific study of its contents. So, SECONDLY, ethnic theology points on to Biblical theology.

Still more evident is it that, THIRDLY, no sure step can be taken in the study of ecclesiastical theology without a prior knowledge of Biblical theology. For what is ecclesiastical theology? Is it not the scientific study of the doctrines and practices confessedly drawn by the Churches of Christ from the Bible, which records the initial stages of those practices and doctrines? How then shall the development of Christendom be scientifically traced if its primary phases be not scientifically known? How shall the Post-Apostolic Age be accurately understood from ecclesiastical writers, if the Apostolic Age be not accurately understood from the writers of the New Testament? How shall the darkness of the Middle Age be depicted except by contrast with the brightness of the days when the Acts of the Apostles were penned?

How shall the epoch of the Reformation be satisfactorily delineated, restoration as it was of the primitive Apostolic Age, unless the written records of the Apostolic Age themselves have been laid bare by capable writers upon the New Testament times?

Similarly, FOURTHLY, an adequate knowledge of doctrinal theology presupposes a satisfactory knowledge of Biblical theology; for the Bible supplies data from which the doctrinal theologian constructs doctrine, and whatever doctrinal formulas may be deduced from the investigation of nature, of the ethnic religions, or even of the creeds of Christian Churches, all these lack an indispensable element of completeness, if the scientific investigation of the teaching of Holy Scripture be absent.

Lastly, it is only needful to name the close connection between the Bible and the public work of the Christian pastor, to make immediately evident the close relation between Biblical and pastoral theology. Expositions of Scripture must be scientific in validity, if not in form, if they are to be of permanent use; and texts and doctrines of the Bible which are handled with neither accuracy nor pertinence, whilst they minister to the ill-repute of the preacher, demonstrate clearly the need of some acquaintance with the recognised methods and ascertained results of Biblical theology.

## § 29.

#### DIVISION OF BIBLICAL THEOLOGY.

From what has been already said, in a preceding section, as to the problems of the Biblico-theological sciences, it is evident that these sciences may be arranged under three heads, viz.—first, the introductory sciences, or the aids to the interpretation of Scripture; secondly, the exegesis itself of the several books of Scripture, resulting from the application of the introductory aids; and thirdly, the sciences resulting from the application to sections of the entire Bible of

the exegetical knowledge given by the second division. Under each of these heads there are several subdivisions. The complete scheme would run as follows:—

I. BIBLICAL INTRODUCTION, or the aids to Biblical exegesis, *i.e.* the subsidiary sciences necessary to the interpretation of Scripture, or, as it might be expressed, the means for obtaining the Data of Biblical Theology.

 Biblical Canonics, or the determination historically of what books constitute the Bible.

2. Biblical Textual Criticism, or the study of the original texts of the Old and New Testaments.

3. Biblical Philology, or the study of the sacred languages.

 Biblical Archæology, sometimes called Biblical Antiquities, or the investigation of the facts pertaining to Biblical geography, natural history, chronology, ethnography, law, politics, rites.

Biblical Literary Criticism, or the investigation of the credibility of Scripture on grounds of language.

- 6. Biblical Hermeneuties, or the principles of Biblical interpretation.
- II. BIBLICAL EXEGESIS, the Data of Biblical Theology, or the science resulting from applying the preceding aids. (The several books of the Bible, or several collections of books, might here form subdivisions.)
- III. BIBLICAL EXEGESIS APPLIED SPECIFICALLY, the Inductions of Biblical Theology.
  - Biblical History, or the investigation of the successive phases of the life of the Old and New Testaments.
  - 2. Biblical Dogmatics, or the investigation of the doctrines of the Bible.
  - 3. Biblical Ethics, or the investigation of the moral facts of the Bible.

#### § 30.

# BOOKS RECOMMENDED UPON THE STUDY OF BIBLICAL $\mbox{THEOLOGY IN GENERAL}.$

#### (1.) English Bibles.

Authorised Version, in many editions.

Revised Version, in many editions.

Variorum Teacher's Edition of the Holy Bible, in several editions. [The Variorum Bible gives in brief footnotes the various readings and renderings suggested by the best authorities.]

#### (2.) Serials.

Expositor. The first and second series, edited by Samuel Cox, in 12 vols. and 8 vols., 1875-1884; the third series in 10 vols., the

fourth in 10 vols., and the fifth, which is still issuing, edited by W. Robertson Nicoll. [Devoted to the exposition of Scripture, by means of expository essays and discourses, commentaries on the various books of the Bible, and reviews of Biblical literature.

Zeitschrift für die alttestamentliche Wissenschaft, Bernhard Stade, 1881, and still issuing balf-yearly, Giessen.

Hebrew Student, a Monthly Journal in the interests of Old Testament Literature and Interpretation, edited by Wm. R. Harper, vols. i. and ii., 1882, 1883, Chicago; continued as Old Testament Student, vols. iii.-viii., 1889-1892; again continued as Old and New Testament Student, vols. ix.-xiv., 1889-1892; again continued from 1893 as The Biblical World, University Press, Chicago. [Gives articles by prominent Biblical writers of different schools and nationalities.

Hebraica, a Quarterly Journal in the interests of Hebrew Study, edited by Wm. R. Harper, Paul Haupt, and Hermann L. Strack, commenced in March 1884, and still issuing, Chicago, U.S.A.

[For the higher study of the Old Testament.]

Studia Biblica et Ecclesiastica, 1885, etc. [See § 15 (3.).]

Bye-Paths of Bible Knowledge, Religious Tract Society, commenced in 1886, and still issuing. [Handbooks written by specialists, and admirably illustrated.]

1. King, J., Cleopatra's Needle, a 12. Sayce, A. H., The Hittites. History.

2. SAYCE, A. H., Fresh Light from the Ancient Monuments.

3. King, J., Recent Discoveries on the Temple Hill at Jerusalem.

4. Budge, E. A. Wallis, Babylonian Life and History.

5. MERRILL, SELAH, Galilee in the Time of Christ.

6. Dawson, J. W., Egypt and Syria, their Physical Features in Relation to Bible History.

7. Sayce, A. H., Assyria, its Princes, Priests, and People.

8. Budge, E. A. Wallis, The Dwellers by the Nile, chapters on Ancient Egypt.

9. Bennett, Sir J. Risdon, The Diseases of the Bible.

10. GROSER, W. H., Trees and Plants of the Bible.

11. HART, H. C., Animals of the Bible.

13. SAYCE, A. H., The Times of Isaiah, from Contemporary Monu-

14. WOOD, J. T., Modern Discoveries on the Site of ancient Ephesus.

15. DRYSDALE, A. H., Early Bible Songs.

16. SAYCE, A. H., The Races of the Old Testament.

17. Tomkins, H. G., The Life and Times of Joseph in the Light of Egyptian Lore.

18. Sayce, A. H., Social Life among the Assyrians and Babylonians.

19. Edkins, Jos., Early Spread of Religious Ideas, especially in the Far East.

20. WILLIAMSON, GEO. C., The Money of the Bible.

21. GILLESPIE, C. G. K., The Sanitary Code of the Pentateuch.

Expository Times, edited by J. Hastings, monthly from Oct. 1889, and still issuing, T. & T. Clark. [Contains notes of recent exposition, reviews of books, and much exegetical matter by many writers; of great use to ministers and students.]

Revue Biblique Internationale publiée de l'école pratique d'études bibliques, 1892, and still issuing each month.

#### (3.) Dictionaries of Bible.

SMITH, WILLIAM, Dictionary of the Bible, comprising its Antiquities, Biography, Geography, and Natural History, in 3 vols., Murray, 1863. The first volume has been revised and issued in two parts, 1893.

Kitto, John, A Cyclopædia of Biblical Literature, originally edited by John Kitto, 3rd edit., greatly enlarged and improved, edited

by W. Lindsay Alexander, Edinburgh, 3 vols. 4to, 1863.

HAMBURGER, J., Real-Encyklopädie für Bibel und Talmul, 2 vols. and 3 supplements, Leipsic 1866–1892. [Jewish.]

Zeller, P., Bibl. Wörterbuch für das christliche Volk, 2 vols., 1867,

4th edit. 1892, Karlsruhe.

RIEHM, EDWARD C. A., Handwörterbuch des biblischen Alterthums, für gebildete Bibelleser, in 2 vols., 1875-84, Bielefield and Leipzig. [A 2nd edition by Baethgen was commenced in 1894.]

Schenkel, Dan., Bibel-Lexikon, Real-Wörterbuch zum Handgebrauch für Geistliche und Gemeindeglieder, 5 vols., Leipsic 1869-

1875.

Vigouroux, F., Dictionnaire de la Bible, Paris, commenced in 1891, and still issuing. [Roman Catholic: profusely illustrated.]

#### (4.) Concordances to English Bible.

Thoms, J. A., A Complete Concordance to the Revised Version of the New Testament, embracing the marginal readings of the American as well as the English revisers, Oxford and Cambridge 1883.

Young, Robert, Analytical Concordance to the Bible on an entirely new plan, containing every word in alphabetical order, arranged under its Hebrew or Greek original, with the literal meaning of each, and its pronunciation, with the latest information on Biblical Geography, Antiquities, 6th edit., revised, Edinburgh 1894, 4to. [Its supplements form invaluable aids to the Bible, as in (6.).]

Strong, James, The Exhaustive Concordance of the Bible, showing every word of the text of the common English Version, together with a Comparative Concordance of the Authorised and Revised

Versions, Hodder, 1894, 4to.

#### (5.) History of Biblical Study generally.

Diestel, Ludwig, Geschichte des Alten Testamentes in der christlichen Kirche, Jena 1869.

#### (6.) Aids to General Study of Bible.

Horne, T. Hartwell, An Introduction to the Critical Study and Knowledge of the Holy Scriptures, Longmans, 1st edit. 1834, 12th edit. 1869. [Deals with far more than what is technically called introduction, the first vol. treating of the genuineness, authenticity, and inspiration of the Bible; the second, of textual criticism and the law of interpretation; the third, of bibliography; the fourth, of the analysis of all the books of Scripture; and the fifth, of Biblical geography and antiquities.]

Briggs, C. A., Biblical Study, its Principles, Methods, and History, together with a Catalogue of Books of Reference, T. & T. Clark,

1883.

Thayer, J. H., Books and their Use, an Address to which is appended a list of books for students of the New Testament, Boston, U.S.A., 1893.

Vincent, Marvin R., Student's New Testament Handbook, New York 1893. [A classified list of books on all branches of New

Testament Study.]

Helps to the Study of the Bible, including introductions to the several books, the history and antiquities of the Jews, the results of modern discoveries, and the natural history of Palestine, with copious tables, concordances, and indices, and a series of maps, Oxford University Press, various editions. [By specialists:

well illustrated.

The Cambridge Companion to the Bible, containing the structure, growth, and preservation of the Bible, introductions to the several books, with summaries of contents, history, and chronology, antiquities, natural history, glossary of Bible words, indices of proper names and subjects, concordance, maps, and index of places, Cambridge University Press, various editions. [By

specialists.]

The Queen's Printers' Aids to the Student of the Holy Bible, containing the history and contents of the Bible, harmony of the Gospels, references in New Testament to passages in Old, Hebrew poetry, Hebrew technical terms in Psalms, music and ethnology of Bible, the Bible and the monuments, Biblical chronology, history, metals, money, weights and measures, plants and animals, calendar, and geography, glossary, concordance, maps, and indexes to persons, places, and subjects, Eyre & Spottiswoode, various editions. [By specialists.]

MOULTON, RICHARD G., The Literary Study of the Bible, an account of the leading forms of literature represented in the Sacred Writings, intended for English readers, Isbister, 1896. [Examines the Biblical lyric, history, epic, wisdom, prophecy, rhetoric,

and idyll.

# B. §§ 31-65.—BIBLICAL THEOLOGY SPECIFICALLY CONSIDERED.

FIRST HEAD: SCIENCES INTRODUCTORY TO EXEGESIS, OR BIBLICAL INTRODUCTION.

§ 31.

DEFINITION AND PROBLEM OF BIBLICAL INTRODUCTION.

Advancing, then, in due course from the study of Biblical theology in general to the examination of the specific Biblical sciences, we commence with those sciences which prepare the way for the interpretation of Scripture. The several Biblical sciences may be arranged, as we have seen, under three categories, those introductory to exegesis, exegesis itself, and those resulting from the application of exegesis. It is the introductory sciences with which it is necessary to first deal. The great aim before us in the scientific study of Scripture is to appropriate its invaluable contents; but before proceeding with such appropriation there are certain preliminary questions which must be asked, upon the solution of which all satisfactory progress depends. Thus, seeing that we are about to deal with the Bible, the question arises, How came it that the collection of sacred books called the Old and New Testaments were treated with an evergrowing respect as compared with the books which are classed as apocryphal? Such a question confronts us with the special problems of the science of Biblical Canonics. Again, what good reason is there for believing that the present texts of the Old and New Testaments fairly represent the original words written by prophets, historians, and apostles in the days of the past, and that they are not so corrupt as to be unreliable? Here a second preliminary science, that of Textual Criticism, must give the reply. Yet again, the question calls for inquiry as to whether our modern acquaintance with the two dead languages in which

the Bible was written is sufficiently accurate to warrant certainty of interpretation; and this problem can only be set at rest by a third preliminary science, that of Biblical Philology. Yet again, many questions of interpretation are affected by the facts of Biblical geography, chronology, biology, law, and politics, and such questions can only be decided by a fourth preliminary science, that of Biblical Archeology. Further, Biblical Literary Criticism has its part to play in the interpretation of Scripture. Yet again, a further problem crops up, viz. is a knowledge of the grammatical laws and dictionary facts of the Bible sufficient to ensure reliableness in interpretation? and this point has been discussed by a further preliminary science called Biblical Hermeneutics. Manifestly, therefore, sound interpretation of Scripture calls for certain preliminary studies. Let us treat of these studies in order, dealing first with Biblical Canonics; secondly, with Biblical Textual Criticism; thirdly, with Biblical Philology; fourthly, with Biblical Archeology; fifthly, with Biblical Literary Criticism; and sixthly, with Biblical Hermeneutics. Further, seeing that all these studies are sometimes massed under a single title, and are called Biblical Introduction, brief attention may be given at the outset to Biblical Introduction in general.

Biblical Introduction is the technical designation for works which present a general view of such studies as are preliminary to a satisfactory exposition of Scripture; in other words, Biblical Introduction is the science or group of sciences which are introductory to exegesis or the interpretation of Scripture. This at any rate is the definition adopted here. Biblical Introduction consists of Biblical Canonics, Biblical Textual Criticism, Biblical Philology, Biblical Archaology, Biblical Literary Criticism, and Biblical Hermeneutics; or, perhaps more accurately, Biblical Introduction deals with the principles of all these sciences presented in accurate manner and appropriate order. Not that this is the only meaning which has been attached to the term. The term is a vague one, and precision in its use is therefore difficult. Some have used the word as synonymous with what is often called a companion to the Bible, as may be seen in Horne's

Introduction, and such aids to the general study of Scripture. [See § 30 (6.).] Others again, like REUSS, have meant by Introduction all that might be called a history of the Bible, that is to say, a history of its separate books, a history of the canon, a history of translations, a history of the text, and a history of the interpretation. And yet again, a more limited view is not uncommon, as in Davidson, where by Biblical Introduction is meant a series of introductions to the several books of Scripture, dealing with such questions as the authorship, the date of writing, the place of writing, the contents, the style, and the peculiar difficulties or specific questions suggested by the several books. In short, all agree that Biblical Introduction introduces, but opinions vary as to what it introduces: Biblical Introduction introduces the student to Biblical interpretation, say some; to the general use of the Bible, say others; to the history of the Bible, say others; and to the intelligent use of the individual books of the Bible, says a fourth class.

In this diversity of view, inseparable from the current acceptance of so indefinite a word, it is manifest that the conveniences of systematic arrangement must decide upon the particular usage adopted. In this book, by Biblical Introduction is meant all that prepares the way for the interpretation of Scripture, and Biblical Introduction really consists of the several sciences preparatory to exegesis already examined. Here, however, an old distinction will render service. Biblical Introduction has been divided again and again into two parts, general and special, and the names are useful; general introduction embodying all that can be said by way of introduction to the interpretation of Scripture as a whole, and special introduction presenting all that is necessary to introduce to the separate books of Scripture.

The PROBLEM, then, of Biblical Introduction varies with the Old and New Testaments, by the nature of the case. The general Biblical Introduction to the Old Testament deals with the question of the canon of the Old Testament, the text, the language, the environment, the literary expression, and the principles of the interpretation of the Old Testament. The special Biblical Introduction to the Old Testament deals with the same themes for each of the Old Testament books, the specific circumstances in each instance causing certain variations of method as well as result. A similar allotment of subjects may be made under New Testament Introduction, general and special.

§ 32.

#### HISTORY OF THE STUDY OF BIBLICAL INTRODUCTION.

From the view just taken of Biblical Introduction, it follows that much of the history of its study is given in the history of the study of its constituent sciences, such as Biblical Canonics, Textual Criticism, Philology, and Hermeneutics. A few additional words may, however, be prefixed with advantage. The word Introduction was used as early as the fifth century, when Adrian, a Greek, wrote his εἰσαγωγὴ τῆς γραφῆς, with a view to instructing readers of the Bible how to rightly understand some difficult Biblical words and expressions. This book was edited by David Höschel in 1602, and published under the title of Adriani Isagoge in Sacram Scripturam; it was also reprinted in the eighth volume of the Critici Sacri. Keys, as they were called, to the Old and New Testaments had been published before Adrian's book, with a similar purpose, and also with the aim of presenting the principles of Biblical interpretation, -regulæ ad investigandam et inveniendam intelligentiam Scripturarum. From the sixth century, when Cassiodorus wrote his *Institutiones Divina*, in which he mentioned, under the name of Introductores Divina Scriptura, five authors who had been engaged in works introductory to the Bible, amongst whom were Augustine and Adrian, the title Introductio in Scripturam Sacram was established. The very flexibility of the name accounts for the variety of ideas attached to the word. Some introductions dealt with isolated portions of the entire science, and others with the entire range of studies, according to the conception of the

author. To trace the entire course of these conceptions would answer no practical end, for introductions to the Bible have abounded from the beginning of the seventeenth century. The peculiar standpoint or value of the leading modern books will be presented in the next section.

#### § 33.

BOOKS RECOMMENDED ON BIBLICAL INTRODUCTION GENERALLY.

#### I. Introductory.

Wright, Chas. H. H., An Introduction to the Old Testament, 1890. [See Theological Educator, § 15 (3.).]

Weiss, Bernhard, A Manual of Introduction to the New Testament,

2 vols., 1887. [See Foreign Biblical Library, § 15 (3.).]

Kerr, John H., An Introduction to the Study of the Books of the New Testament, 1892, Chicago, Revell, U.S.A.

#### II. For More Advanced Study.

### (1.) Introductions to the Whole Bible.

DE WETTE, W. M. L., Lehrbuch der histor.-kritischen Einleitung in die Bibel A. und N. Test., part 1, Einleitung in's A. T., Berlin 1817, 8th edit. 1869, by Schrader; part 2, Einleitung in's N. T., 1826-30, 6th edit. 1860, by Messner and Lünemann. The Old Testament section was translated by Theodore Parker as A Critical and Historical Introduction to the Canonical Scriptures of the Old Testament, in 2 vols., Boston 1843.

Kaulen, Fr., Einleitung in die heilige Schrift A. und N. T., Freiburg 1876 and 1882, 2nd edit. 1884. [See Theologische Bibliothek,

§ 15 (3.).]

Harman, Henry M., Introduction to the Study of the Holy Scriptures, 10th thousand, 1894. [See Library of Biblical and Theo-

logical Literature, § 15 (3.).]

Cornely, Rudolphus, Historica et critica Introductio in Libros Sacros, 3 vols., 1885, 1886, Paris. [Part of the Cursus Scripture Sacrae now being issued by the Society of Jesus.] A Compendium of the same work in 1 vol., also in Latin, was published in Paris in 1889.

### (2.) Introductions to the Old Testament.

Eichhorn, J. G., Einleitung in das A. T., 1st edit. 1780, etc., 4th edit. in 5 vols. 1823–24, Göttingen.

Hävernick, H. A. Ch., Handbuch der historisch-kritischen Einleitung

in das A. T., 3 vols., Erlangen 1837-49, the third volume being edited by Keil, who also issued a 2nd edition of vols. i. and ii. in 1854-56; translated as A General Historico-Critical Introduction to the Pentateuch and to the Ohl Test., 2 vols., T. & T. Clark, 1850.

BLEEK, Fr., Einleitung in das Alte Testament, herausgegeben von J. Bleek und A. Kamphausen, 6th edit. edited by J. Wellhausen, Berlin 1893, 1st edit. 1860. The second German edition was translated by G. H. Venables as An Introduction to the Old Testament, in 2 vols., Bell & Daldy, 1869.

Davidson, Sam., An Introduction to the Old Testament, Critical, Historical, and Theological, containing a discussion of the most important questions belonging to the several books, Williams & Norgate, 3 vols., 1862. [Deals with special introduction only.]

Fürst, Julius, Geschichte der biblischen Literatur und des jüdischhellenistischen Schriftthums historisch und kritisch behandelt,

2 vols., Leipsic 1867-70.

Keil, C. F., Lehrbuch der historisch-kritischen Einleitung in die kanonischen und apokryphischen Bücher des A. T., neu bearbeitet von Eberhard Schrader, 3rd edit., Berlin 1869; also, Manual of Historico-Critical Introduction to the Canonical Scriptures of the Old Testament, translated from the second German edition, with supplementary notes from Bleek and others, by Geo. C. M. Douglas, 2 vols., T. & T. Clark, 1869.

Reuss, Ed., Die Geschichte der heiligen Schriften A. T., Brunswick

1881, 2nd edit. 1890.

RIEHM, EDUARD, Einleitung in das A. T., edited by Alex. Brandt,

2 vols., Halle 1889, 1890.

Driver, S. R., An Introduction to the Literature of the O. T., 1891, 5th edit. 1894; see International Theological Library, § 15 (3.). [Special introduction.]

Wise, Isaac M., Pronaos to Holy Writ, establishing on documentary evidence the Authorship, Date, Form, and Contents of each of the

Books, Cincinnati, 1891. [Jewish special introduction.]

CORNILL, C. H., Einleitung in das A. T., 1891. [See Grundriss der

theol. Wissenschaften, § 15 (3.).

König, Ed., Einleitung in das A. T. mit Einschluss der Apokryphen und der Pseudepigraphen A. T., 1893. [See Sammlung theol.

 $Handbücher, \S 15 (3.).$ 

Strack, H. L., Einleitung in das A. T. einschliesslich Apokryphen und Pseulepigraphen, 4th edit. 1895. [See Zöckler, Otto, Handluch, § 15 (3.): has excellent references to the literature of the subject.]

#### (3.) Introductions to the New Testament.

BLEEK, Fr., Einleitung in das Neue Test., 1st and 2nd edit edited by J. F. Bleek, 1862 and 1865, 4th edit edited by W. Mangold, Berlin 1886; also, An Introduction to the New Testament, translated from the second German edition, 2 vols., T. & T. Clark, 1869-70.

- GLOAG, PATON J., Introduction to the Pauline Epistles, T. & T. Clark, 1874.
- —— Introduction to the Catholic Epistles, T. & T. Clark, 1887.
- —— Introduction to the Johannine Writings, Nisbet, 1891. — Introduction to the Synoptic Gospels, T. & T. Clark, 1895.

Reuss, Ed., Die Geschichte der heiligen Schriften Neuen Testaments, 5th edit. 1874, translated by E. L. Houghton under the title History of the Sarred Scriptures of the New Testament, 2 vols., Boston, 1884; a 6th German edit. 1887. [In five divisions, containing the history of the New Testament literature, canon, text, translations, and exegesis.]

Davidson, Sam., An Introduction to the Study of the New Testament, Critical, Exegetical, and Theological, 2 vols., Longmans, 1868, 3rd

edit. 1884. [Special introduction.]

Hilgenfeld, Adolf, Historisch-kritische Einleitung in das Neue

Testament, Leipsic 1875.

Salmon, George, A Historical Introduction to the Study of the Books of the New Testament, being an expansion of Lectures delivered in the Divinity School of the University of Dublin, Murray, 1885. 7th edit. 1894. [Mostly treats of special introduction, especially in its relation to the Canon, with a few additional lectures on Baur's theory of early Church history, the original language of Matthew, and some apocryphal books.

Holtzmann, H. J., Lehrbuch der historisch-kritischen Einleitung in das N. T., 1885, 3rd edit. 1892. [See Sammlung theol. Lehrbücher,

§ 15 (3.).

Weiss, Bernhard, Lehrbuch der Einleitung in das N. T., Berlin 1886,

2nd edit. 1889. [See I. Introductory.]

M'CLYMONT, J. A., The New Testament and its Writers, being an Introduction to the Books of the New Testament, Black, 1893. [Largely special introduction.]

Godet, F., Introduction to the New Testament. Particular Introduction I., The Epistles of St. Paul, translated from the French by Wm. Affleck, T. & T. Clark, 1894.

#### BIBLICAL CANONICS.

§ 34.

#### DEFINITION AND PROBLEM OF BIBLICAL CANONICS.

Advancing now to the several constituent sections of Biblical Introduction, first let the canon of Scripture be considered.

At the outset a caution is necessary. There is an

ambiguity about the use of the word Canon which has not been without mischievous influence during the course of history. When we speak of the canon or standard of Scripture, we may mean either the standard by which the truth of Scripture is determined,—the canon of Scripture; or we may mean Scripture as itself the standard of truth, the canon in Scripture. We may mean the rational grounds upon which the Bible is constituted authoritative, or we may mean the Bible as itself an authority. The confusion of idea is not unfrequently met with to-day, where the canon of Scripture now signifies the standard by which a book is constituted Scripture,—the criterion of Scripture, and now Scripture itself as a standard,—Scripture as a criterion. Biblical Canonics is only concerned with the facts of the constituting of Scripture into a canon, not with the grounds upon which that constitution rationally takes place. In other words, there are two questions which arise concerning the collection of sacred books called the Bible, namely, on the one hand, how did this collection come to be formed? and on the other hand, what are the intrinsic grounds, other than the fact of its formation, which constitute such a collection a standard of faith and practice? Both questions are highly interesting and important, but they are not both included under the idea of Biblical canonics. In Biblical canonics we are concerned with the fact of the constitution of a canonical Bible, not with the grounds which render such a constitution rational (a branch of Apologetics or Fundamental Theology to be considered later). Taking the Bible as it stands, a preliminary question to its exposition is, how did this Bible as a whole arise? how comes it that these sixty-six books, written at different times, and by different writers, have been framed into an authoritative whole? Recognising the fact of the existence of the Bible as a whole, the historical explanation of that fact is to be studied. The question, then, of which Biblical canonics treats is, how these sixty-six books of the early literature of Judaism and Christianity came to be framed into one standard collection, considered authoritative, inspired, divine, canonical.

The problem, then, of Biblical canonics is to show how the sixty-six books of the Bible, of various ages, by different authors, and of diverse literary forms, came to be associated together as an authoritative code. The materials for judgment are of course to be found in ancient testimony. That ancient testimony is of two kinds—references to the entire collection of sacred writings as such, especially catalogues of books esteemed canonical, and references to single books as such, also spoken of as canonical. Further, this evidence of ancient witnesses must include negative as well as positive testimony. It is not enough to show that certain books were considered canonical; it is also necessary to show that other books were not considered canonical. Extant writers of the past have to be ransacked, first, to find any references favourable to the canonical character of the Biblical books, individually or collectively; secondly, to ascertain that there are no references adverse to the canonical character of the Biblical books, individually or collectively; and thirdly, to collect all the references to any individual books regarded as apocryphal, as they are technically called, or in other words, uncanonical. Such is the problem. The nature of the resulting investigation will best appear upon the brief outline of the science given in the next section but one, the next section being devoted to a few reasons for studying Biblical canonics.

§ 35.

#### UTILITY OF THE STUDY OF BIBLICAL CANONICS.

From what has been said in the previous section, it is evident that we are not yet in a position to decide the reasonableness or unreliableness of the claims which the Bible makes on its own behalf. Such an examination belongs, as has been said, to a later phase of theological inquiry than Biblical canonics. Nevertheless, although the scientific study of the canon of Scripture cannot alone substantiate the exalted position amongst the sacred books of the world which

Christians demand for the Bible, the study of the history of the canon does confer some manifest advantages. As Canon Westcott 1 remarks with justice, "A full examination of the objections which have been raised against particular books, a detailed account of the external evidence by which they are severally supported, an accurate estimate of the internal proofs of their authenticity, are indeed most needful; but besides all this, it seems no less important to gain a wide and connected prospect of the history of the whole collection of the New Testament Scriptures, to trace the gradual recognition of a written Apostolic rule as authoritative and divine, to observe the gradual equalisation of 'the Gospels and Epistles' with 'the Law and the Prophets,' to notice the predominance of partial, though not exclusive, views in different Churches, till they were all harmonised in a universal creed, and witnessed by a completed canon." Of course Canon Westcott is speaking here of the New Testament; but the study of the growth of the entire canon is equally instructive. Before the entire claims of the Bible can be decided upon, many varieties of evidence, external and internal, must be weighed; but amongst the external branches of evidence, the history of the canon, of its formation and acceptance, holds an important place.

For, FIRST, the large unanimity of Christians, a unanimity which grew with inquiry, and was proportioned to the care of examination, as to the authoritativeness of the books of Scripture, invests those books with a peculiar interest. Christians of all creeds and many divergences have been at one in their acceptance of the books of the Old and New Testament as canonical, the *fons et judex* of Christian truth. This universality of opinion, the result of a developing but an irresistible sentiment, is an item of considerable value, the Christian Churches consisting of members such as they have contained, and sustaining external attacks such as they have borne. The common sense of Christians is as deserving of notice as any other form of common sense.

Then, SECONDLY, the very variations of view disclosed by the history of the canon, slight as they are, are also in-

 $<sup>^{\</sup>rm 1}$  On the Canon of the New Testament, p. 1.

structive, on the one hand, because of their slightness, and on the other, because of their testimony to alertness of mind. For what are the differences of view? As regards the Old Testament, whether the apocryphal books shall be embodied in the canon. As regards the New Testament, there is no difference as far as the formulated beliefs of the several Churches are concerned. It is true that all the Protestant Churches are agreed also upon the Old Testament, but at present there is another remark which it is desirable to make. The difference of view concerning the canonical character of the additional books of the Hellenistic Old Testament is, after all, supremely unimportant. The contents of these books no more affect the doctrinal character of Christianity than the variations brought to light by textual criticism. As compared with the Law and the Prophets, they are altogether second or even tenth rate. Their interest is largely historic. The prophetic and didactic elements of the Old Testament are untouched by the question as to the canonicity of the disputed books. The suggestive fact of the unanimous acknowledgment of the canonicity of the Hebrew Bible by all Churches is unaffected by diversity of view as to the Apocrypha.

And, THIRDLY, the gradual elimination of books of doubtful authority by the consent of the early Churches, strengthens confidence in the books retained. As will be seen in the next section, there was hesitancy as regards the canonicity of some books now unanimously acknowledged, just as there was precipitancy in labelling as canonical some books now unanimously rejected. A growing conviction fixed the canon; there was some dubitation whilst that conviction was forming; once intelligently and generally matured, this touchstone of a universal sentiment selected with precision what was noble metal, as surely as it failed to find an answering attraction for what was base. The fact of the unanimous acceptance of the New Testament, and of the Hebrew Old Testament, as canonical by all Christian Churches, invests this collection of sacred books with a peculiar interest, and renders them worthy, to say the least, of the closest study.

FOURTHLY, the great gain, however, of the study of Biblical

canonics is to show with accuracy what the Bible is, by showing both how it has come to be formed into an authoritative collection and at the same time how it has held its ground since its first formation. Biblical canonics supplies an accurate definition of the Bible.

§ 36.

#### HISTORY OF THE CANON.

Biblical Canonics, which is really a history of the canon, falls by the nature of the case into two divisions, viz. the collection of the books of the Old Testament into one canonical whole, and the elevation of the New Testament books to a canonical place beside the Old Testament. Each of these two phases of the formation of the canon involves an elaborate investigation, all too superficially understood even to-day, the barest outline of which can be given here. With respect to both the Old Testament and the New, there is a stage of formation of the canon, and a stage of its general acceptance, and under each of these heads some few words should be said.

At the commencement of the Christian era the CANON OF THE OLD TESTAMENT was extant in two forms, the Palestinian and the Alexandrian. The Palestinian or Hebrew Old Testament was composed of twenty-eight books. If some regarded the canon as composed of twenty-five books, this was only because the two books of Samuel, of Kings, and Chronicles were each reckoned as but one book; and if some spoke of twenty-two books, as did Josephus and some Fathers of the Church, in their desire to make the number of books square with the number of letters in the Hebrew alphabet, this only arose from regarding Ruth as a supplement to Judges, Lamentations as an appendix to Jeremiah, and Ezra and Nehemiah as two parts of the same work. These twentyeight books were classed under three sections, and arranged in the following order:—The first section was the Law, in Hebrew Torah, comprising the five books attributed to Moses,

that is to say, Genesis, Exodus, Leviticus, Numbers, and Deuteronomy. The second section was called the Prophets, in Hebrew Nebiim, most probably so named as emanating from the prophetic schools; this section being divided into two parts, the one of which, under the title of Nebiim Risonim, or Former Prophets, comprised Joshua, Judges, the two books of Samuel, and the two books of Kings, and the other of which, the Nebiim Acharonim, or Latter Prophets, included Isaiah, Jeremiah, Ezekiel, and the twelve Minor Prophets, considered but one book. The third section, the Ketubim (or Writings par excellence), holy writings, hagiographa, contained the Psalms, the Proverbs, Job, the Song of Songs, Ruth, Lamentations, Esther, Daniel, Ezra, Nehemiah, and the two books of Chronicles. This is the form in which the Hebrew Old Testament has come down to us at this day. Nor is this triple division of late date; it is found in Ecclesiasticus, in the New Testament, and in Josephus, in Philo, and in the Talmud. The Alexandrian canon, presented in the Septuagint, is more than a bare translation of the Hebrew canon, for it gives eight additional books, an additional book of Ezra, and considerable additions to Esther and Daniel; further, the several books after the Pentateuch are arranged in a different order.

It is very probable that the diversity between the two canons is to be explained by the gradual formation of the canon, together with the varied estimation in which the three sections of the canon were held. It would seem that the five books of the Law were first constituted into a sacred collection, that then the historical and prophetical writings were formed into an additional collection, the Prophets, and that lastly the several works which form the Hebrew Hagiographa were blended into one whole and placed side by side with the Law and the Prophets. Further, there is much reason for ascribing the first canon to Moses, the enlarged canon of Moses and the Prophets to the gradual accretions made by the prophetical schools to the Law, and the final arrangement of the canon to Ezra. Considerable interest in this connection attaches to a statement of the Talmud in the treatise Babha-bathra (only the ancient reading is given, the

interruptions of the Gemara being omitted): "Our rabbis have taught: the classification of the Prophets-Joshua and Judges, Samuel and Kings, Jeremiah and Ezekiel, Isaiah and the Twelve. . . . The classification of the Hagiographa— Ruth and the Psalms and Job and the Proverbs, Ecclesiastes, the Song of Songs and the Lamentations, Daniel and the roll of Esther, Ezra and the Chronicles. . . . And who has written them? Moses has written his book, the chapter of Balaam, and Job; Joshua has written his book and the eight (final) verses of the Law; Samuel has written his book, Judges and Ruth; David has written the Psalms, assisted by ten elders, assisted by the first man, Melchisedec, Abraham, Moses, Heman, Yedouthun, Asaph, and the three sons of Qorah; Jeremiah has written his book, the book of Kings and Lamentations; Hezekiah and his company have written Isaiah, the Proverbs, the Song of Songs, and Ecclesiastes; the men of the Great Synagogue have written Ezekiel and the Twelve, Daniel and the roll of Esther; Ezra has written his book, and the genealogy of the Chronicles." The ambiguity of the word "has written" will be noticed, sometimes standing as it does for "composing," and sometimes "editing." Nevertheless, the varying canonical authority attributed to the three sections must not be forgotten, for it is an important element in the case. In the Talmud the Law is regarded as having the highest authority, being supposed to have had an immediate divine origin, some rabbis attributing it to the very finger of God, and others preferring to say that God dictated the Law to Moses as to an amanuensis. The authority of the Prophets was of a similar but inferior order. "Moses saw as in a clear mirror, and the Prophets in an unclean glass," or as it was sometimes expressed, "Moses saw through one glass, and the Prophets through seven." "The individuality of a prophet," it is said in another place, "is more evident in his writings than in the books of Moses, and Isaiah gives one the impression of a courtier, and Ezekiel of a peasant, whilst the words of Jeremiah differ widely from those of Amos." A still inferior position characterised the Holy Writings, it was supposed. The prophetic books were written, it used to be said, by the spirit of prophecy, the holy writings were written by the spirit of holiness. All the evidence available goes to show that the Law was the most highly venerated part of the canon, that the Prophets occupied a slightly lower place, but were read in the public services as well as the Law, but that the Writings came last, only the five "rolls" (megilloth), as they were called, being read, that is to say, the Song of Songs, Ruth, Lamentations, Ecclesiastes, and Esther, and these only on extraordinary occasions. Now it is possible that the enlargement of the Alexandrian canon was a consequence of this inferior position of the Hagiographa; what Esther and the Song of Songs were to the Hebrew Jew, the Wisdom of Solomon and Baruch were to the Greek Jew. A flexibility might be permissible in the canonical third section, which would not have been tolerated in the canonical Prophets, to say nothing of the Law, the supreme canon.

At the commencement of the Christian era, therefore, all the evidence goes to show that there was entire unanimity as to the canonical authority of the Law and of the Prophets (in the Hebrew sense of the term), and that there was also entire unanimity as to the canonical character of the Hagiographa, some Greek Jews adding certain other books to this section, inasmuch as this section was, from its subject-matter, not regarded as so distinctively revelation as the other sections. There is also reason to believe that the book of Daniel formed part of the Prophets, occupying the position it now occupies in the English arrangement of the Old Testament books.

The Christian canon of the Old Testament did not vary from the Jewish, the earliest catalogues, however, declaring for the Hebrew canon. It would appear that later the general use of the Septuagint, and of the Vulgate, which was translated from the Septuagint, caused some confusion as to the ancient difference drawn between the Hebrew and Greek canons. Jerome declared for the Hebrew canon; Augustine for the Greek. The canon of Augustine was adopted at the Council of Carthage—with a reservation as to some future decision to be taken—and was afterwards published in the Decretals. In fact, the question as to the acceptance of the

Hebrew or Greek form of the Hagiographa remained an open question till the Council of Trent, which declared the enlarged canon to be deserving in all its parts of equal veneration. On the other hand, the Protestant Churches unanimously confirmed the Hebrew canon, and refused to allow any authority to the additional books of the Greek canon.

Here another series of problems arises, viz., THE FORMATION AND ATTESTATION OF THE NEW TESTAMENT CANON. In this case also, as in that of the Old Testament, there is some obscurity about the stage of formation. Then the course of development varied. For a time some books of merely religious authority were accredited as part of the New Testament canon, whilst some canonical books were viewed with doubt. At last a perfect unanimity was reached by all Churches.

That complete canon resulted, it would seem, from the perfectly free action of the various Churches, who desired to preserve, for their own satisfaction and the good of others, books felt by them to be of inestimable value. No single Church drew up a canon which it strove to force upon all by decree or council, but by a perfectly natural process apparently (which doubtless shows a superior divine co-operation the more surely that it was associated with the free action of men) the larger Christian Churches, as the original preachers of the gospel passed away, set themselves to procure as perfect a set of the writings of these earliest preachers as possible, the evangelical spirit of their time giving them the surest available test of the value of any book which it seemed desirable to preserve. The formation of the canon is confessedly veiled in much darkness, but there is great reason to believe that the free communication from Church to Church of the several writings which had been entrusted to any one of them led in time to the formation of the canon. From all the evidence available it is just to infer that before the middle of the third century the books now called the New Testament were known in a collected form, and reverenced as the authoritative standard of faith and practice; and not only so, it is also inferrible from the voluminous evidence with equal justice that the books so collected were the same books possessed by us now. Both Origen and Eusebius, after careful inquiry, enumerate the same books as are recognised to-day as constituting the New Testament canon, though Eusebius points out that the canonicity of six, viz. the Epistles of James and Jude, the Second Epistle of Peter, the Second and Third Epistles of John, and the Apocalypse, was doubted by a few persons.

Into the voluminous evidence as to the New Testament canon, including the ancient catalogues of the New Testament as a whole, and the patristic references to individual books of the New Testament, it is unnecessary to enter in this brief sketch. The history of the New Testament canon is divided into two epochs, the epoch of formation and the epoch of acceptance. The epoch of formation is divided into three periods, the first of which, extending from the date of the writing of Paul's first epistle to the time of Hegesippus, A.D. 170, is the period of the separate circulation and gradual collection of the New Testament writings; the second of which, reaching to the Diocletian persecution in 303, is characterised by the gradual separation, under the unanimous conviction of the Church, of the New Testament books from other religious literature, such as the Epistle of Barnabas, the Shepherd of Hermas, the Epistle of Clement, and the Apocalypse of Peter, which were for a time admitted into the canon. At the Third Council of Carthage, 397, the present canon of the New Testament was formally and solemnly declared and ratified. The epoch of acceptance might be conveniently studied under two periods, from the Council of Carthage to the Reformation, and from the Reformation to the present day. Assaults have been made by individuals upon the canonical authority of a few New Testament books, but the canon of the New Testament is part of catholic truth, acknowledged by all creeds and all Churches.

The Bible, then, with which Biblical theology has to deal, is deserving of the closest study, as, to say the least, that standard of faith and practice which has been unanimously, or all but unanimously, received by the Christian Churches. It is true that this Biblical canon was recognised little by little at first, "like the formalising of doctrine and the

settling of ecclesiastical order," as Canon Westcott has well said; nevertheless that recognition was inevitable, though progressive, when once attention had been drawn to the question of an authoritative written standard. Let the additional books of the Greek Old Testament canon be considered side by side with the Law or the Prophets, and unanimity of conclusion was certain when the convictions of men became clear and firm. Similarly, let the Epistle of Barnabas be compared with the Epistles of Paul, and decision as to the canonical superiority of the latter could not be long deferred, and once arrived at, would speedily become unanimous.

Thus, on purely external evidence, the evidence of its recognition as canonical in history, the Bible occupies an unique position, and he must be destitute of historic sense who does not see how important a scientific study of this book must be. A parallel to this recognition as canonical is to be found in no heathen religion. The canonical writings of Buddhism cannot be compared with the canonical writings of Christianity, whether we regard the universality, the intelligence, the caution, or the unfaltering acquiescence with which they have been received as canonical. There are certainly, as has been already said frankly and fully, other grounds upon which the Bible may be accepted as canonical, internal grounds as they are called, reasons for acceptance based on the contents themselves of Scripture. That the Scriptures are worthy to be standards of faith and practice from their intrinsic excellence, that they are worthy both in whole and in part to be such standards, that they are preeminently worthy to be such standards when compared with other religious canons, these three attributes, which they must of necessity display if they are to be the supreme standard of faith and practice, become increasingly clearer as the contents of the Bible are examined scientifically. Even now, however, on the purely matter-of-fact evidence which the history of the canon supplies, we see reason for regarding the Bible as at once an extraordinary book, and deserving of the most accurate and consecutive and painstaking study.

## § 37.

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#### BIBLICAL TEXTUAL CRITICISM.

§ 38.

## DEFINITION AND PROBLEM OF NEW TESTAMENT TEXTUAL CRITICISM.

Having first asked, in our examination of the Biblical sciences preparatory to exegesis, how the Bible came to be constituted, we now pass on to the question as to what is the genuine text of the Bible. From Biblical Canonics we advance to Biblical Textual Criticism. This fascinating and important science we commence with New Testament Biblical criticism—for a very good reason; New Testament textual criticism has made a greater progress towards completeness than the science of the Old Testament text. Indeed, the high scientific form of the New Testament study is the ideal towards which the Old Testament branch must strive to attain.

The problem which the Textual Criticism of the New Testament has to attack is, from all the materials attainable, to ascertain as nearly as possible the original text of the Gospels and the other Apostolic writings—in other words, to eliminate by all possible means the errors due to the human instruments by which the sacred text has been transmitted. The materials available for forming a critical judgment upon the text of the New Testament are divisible into two great classes, namely, the various printed editions of the New Testament and the various extant manuscripts. Of these written materials, again, there are several classes, viz. first, the various manuscripts of part or of the whole of the New Testament, of which about two thousand of various ages are

known to exist, many of these, however, being of small fragments; secondly, the several versions of the New Testament, some of great age, which resulted from the translation of the original Greek text into other languages; and thirdly, the quotations from the New Testament to be found in ancient Christian writers, some of whose works were written earlier than the oldest known manuscript, and many of whose writings were contemporary with some of the most highly prized codices.

Given, then, the innumerable printed copies of the New Testament and the hundreds of written copies, together with the several translations and the multitudinous excerpts, the problem is to reproduce as far as possible the text of the apostolic autographs. How is this problem to be resolved?

Taking up any copy of the Greek Testament in common use,—for every English translation is confessedly based upon the Greek text,—dealing, let us say for convenience' sake, with a copy of the Greek text of the Authorised Version, it is evident that this Greek text can have no further authority than that of the manuscript or manuscripts from which it was printed, although two other factors also enter, that is to say, the critical tact of the editor, and the practical skill of the printer. A similar remark may be made concerning all printed editions, their value ultimately depending upon the value of the manuscripts from which they have been compiled. For the formation of any critical judgment of these printed editions we are thrown back upon the written sources.

Turning, therefore, to the ancient manuscripts of the New Testament which are available for a critical judgment upon the sacred text, it is manifest that our first task must be to examine into the critical value of the several manuscripts, whether in Greek or in other languages, whether of actual portions of the Greek Testament or of verses quoted in early writers. Three principal points rise for decision—first, as to the originality of a manuscript; secondly, as to its age; and thirdly, as to its general character. For example, in reference to the first point, should a manuscript simply be a more or less accurate copy of another, it can have no more value than its pattern, and in this case two would not be better than one.

Further, as to the second point, other things being equal authority increases with age. And yet further, as to the third point, the general character of a manuscript for correctness or faultiness, for bias or judgment, for scrupulous exactitude or for critical ambition, must necessarily enter into our estimate of its worth, just as a general repute for goodness and honesty enters into our estimate of the acts of an individual man. It is true that the determination of these points of age, originality, and character is by no means easy; nevertheless they must be settled with some accouracy before the problem of textual criticism is in any satisfactory degree solved. The method of determination is evident. Originality is to be tested by a careful comparison of manuscripts, one important element in decision being the frequency or infrequency of manifest blunders, and another being evident bias. Age is to be ascertained by a knowledge of the history of the manuscript, and by the well-established principles of paleography. As for the general character of a manuscript, it can only be known after the close and repeated examinations of expects. experts, familiar with the principles, facts, and details of textual criticism.

By the pursuance of these several lines of inquiry, a decision upon the several points involved becomes possible. The proven principles of palæography especially have given a large leverage in dealing with the numerous manuscripts available. By this means the score of hundreds of codices already known to exist may be classified almost according to the centuries in which they were written. One leading division at least, of primary importance, has been introduced by palæographical researches, viz. the division of manuscripts into uncial and researches, viz. the division of manuscripts into uncial and cursive, the uncials being all written in capital letters without juncture, according to the mode of writing current until the beginning of the tenth century, the cursives being written in a running hand with the several letters conjoined to form words, the style of writing which obtained from the tenth century onwards. But the principles of palæography have not merely given this primary and important division, but they also, as has been said, render it possible to apportion to their several contunies the manuscripts written during their course. several centuries the manuscripts written during their course.

By the united evidence as to originality, age, and general character, evidence daily becoming more voluminous and accurate, a long series of scholars have reared a science which is one of the monuments of recent research. Libraries in the East and in the West have been ransacked for ancient Testaments and Fathers, codices of many kinds and values have been carefully collated, splendid attempts have been made to build up a trustworthy and critical text, and at least it may be said, that a great and almost exhaustive collection of materials has been made, the way being thus prepared for solving the important problem completely.

The science of the textual criticism of the New Testament—often called more briefly but not so accurately New Testament criticism—is, then, the science which endeavours to recover the actual text in which the New Testament was

written.

# § 39.

# NECESSITY FOR A SCIENCE OF NEW TESTAMENT TEXTUAL CRITICISM.

The textual criticism of the New Testament is, then, specially directed to the discovery of the actual words of those holy men who wrote its inspired Gospels and Epistles. How indispensable a preliminary to any exact study of the New Testament such a science is, a few words will soon render plain.

A moment's thought makes it evident that the so-called Authorised or Revised Version of the Bible, the Scriptures, that is to say, as they are issued by the Bible Society or the University Presses, is not the original Bible, but a more or less perfect transcript. Though characterised by great exactness, the Bibles of our households are confessedly printed copies of a translation made in the sixteenth century from Hebrew and Greek manuscripts extant at that time, and made with the assistance of several translations which had been previously executed. It is unquestionable that these

Hebrew originals were copies of an Old Testament text (itself resulting from the critical investigations of a long series of Jewish scholars, which extended from the third to the tenth dewish scholars, which extended from the third to the tenth centuries), and that these Greek originals were copies, possibly copies of copies, or even copies many times removed, of manuscripts transcribed in the third or fourth centuries. A vital question therefore arises, as to whether our present Bibles are not liable to error, not as translations only, but as transcripts. The question is a question of fact. Whether the Greek and Hebrew texts employed by the translators of the English Bible were accurate representatives of the actual autographs of the prophets and apostles is just a matter of fact. Certainly, had the great Revealer seen fit, He might fact. Certainly, had the great Revealer seen fit, He might have preserved to us the identical sheets of papyrus or skins of parchment which passed beneath the styles of the holy men of old who wrote as they were moved by the Holy Spirit, just as by a continuous miracle, on the destruction of the original writings, He might have scrupulously preserved every scribe from error in copying or every compositor from error in printing. But the question is not one of divine ability, but of divine purpose. As a matter of fact, have the autographs of the apostles and prophets been handed down to our times? The reply must be in the negative. As a matter of fact, the great Giver of Truth has not been careful to preserve all past, present, and future copies of the Holy Scriptures from any and every admixture of error, as innumerable variations testify. The scribe was no more gifted with infallibility in the past than the printer in the present. At all times the amount of error in the multiplication of the Scriptures has been proportionate to the lack of skill and care of the agents employed. Such is the testimony of facts. A careless scribe has often written a Greek Sigma for a Greek Omicron, from their similarity in ancient character; and a nodding scribe has often left out a line when two successive lines have begun with the same word, as copyists have done in all times; and a punctilious scribe has often corrected a word or a passage to make it square with his own critical notions, another habit of copyists which it is to be feared is very human. So translations differ from originals because of

mistakes in transcription as well as in interpretation, printed translations differ from printed translations, printed originals differ from printed originals, and the numerous manuscript copies extant of the Old and New Testaments not merely differ from the printed texts, but from each other. Manifestly it is the divine Will that the Bible, having been transmitted to us by the common channels of literary diffusion, should be purified from foreign admixtures gained in transit by the common methods of literary criticism. Hence the necessity of so-called textual criticism, or the critical determination of the most probably correct text of the Old and New Testaments.

Let it be distinctly and at once stated, however, that the larger the number of manuscripts of any author extant, in spite of the fact that the number of various readings is multiplied, the greater is our knowledge of the actual words written. The seeming paradox was admirably put by the great classical scholar, Bentley, in the thirty-second section of his Remarks upon a late Discourse of Free-thinking in a Letter to F. H., D.D., by Philoleutherus Lipsiensis. Dr. Whitby had taunted Mill, the editor of a critical edition of the New Testament, with "proving" by his thousands of various readings "the text of Scripture precarious," and Dr. Bentley pungently replied: "The 30,000 various lections are allowed, then, and confessed; and if more copies yet are collated, the sum will mount still higher. And what's the inference from this? Why, one Gregory, here quoted, infers that no profane author whatever has suffered so much by the hand of time as the New Testament has done."... Bentley then stated the case as follows: "If there had been but one manuscript of the Greek Testament at the restoration of learning, about two centuries ago, then we had had no various readings at all. And would the text be in a better position then, than now we have 30,000? So far from that, that in the best single copy extant we should have had some hundreds of faults, and some omissions irreparable. Besides that, the suspicion of fraud and foul play would have been increased immensely. It is good, therefore, you'll allow, to have more anchors than one; and another manuscript to join with the first would give more authority, as well as security. Now,

choose that second where you will, there shall still be a thousand variations from the first, and yet half or more of the faults shall still remain in them both. A third, therefore, and so a fourth, and still on, are desirable, that by a joint and mutual help all the faults may be mended; some copy preserving the true reading in one place and some in another. And yet the more copies you call to your assistance, the more do the various readings multiply upon you; every copy having its peculiar slips, though in a principal passage or two it do singular service. And this is fact, not only in the New Testament, but in all ancient books whatever." . . . And Bentley illustrated this conclusion in this way: "In profane authors, whereof one manuscript only had the luck to be preserved, . . . the faults of the scribes are found so numerous, and the defects are so beyond all redress, that, notwithstanding the pains of the learnedest and acutest critics for two whole centuries, these books still are, and are like to continue, a mere heap of errors. On the contrary, where the copies of any author are numerous, though the various readings always increase in proportion, there the text, by an accurate collation of them made by skilful and judicious hands, is ever the more correct, and comes nearer to the true words of the author." . . . Hence Bentley concludes: "The New Testament has suffered less injury by the hand of time than any profane author. . . . Not frighted, therefore, with the present 30,000, I, for my part, and (as I believe) many others, would not lament, if out of the old manuscripts yet untouched 10,000 more were faithfully collected, some of which without question would render the text more beautiful, just, and exact, though of no consequence to the main of religion; nay, perhaps wholly synonymous in the view of common readers, and quite insensible in any modern version." The more numerous the various readings, the more certain the text, in short, when once the principles of textual criticism have been drawn up.

Indeed, the careful prosecution of the science of textual criticism has had a very positive result. It has accentuated the reliableness of the common text for all practical purposes. Before the science was framed, doubt might have been thrown

upon the general accuracy of the New Testament texts; now such doubt is impossible. Thousands of various readings have been collated, but it is most remarkable and reassuring how slightly these various readings affect the substance of the New Testament. A classification of the lapses which are found in the manuscripts and printed copies of the New Testament will make this practical accuracy clear, at the same time that it renders the necessity of a science of textual criticism the more tangible. Scribes and compositors are naturally liable, whether consciously or unintentionally, to add to their copy, to leave part of their copy out, or even to alter their copy. All these classes of error are seen in the New Testament, where, on comparing one exemplar with another, we find various substitutions, and various additions, and various omissions. There are, it is found, in the sacred pages unconscious errors arising from the failure of sight, or of hearing, or of memory; there are conscious errors arising from the incorporation of marginal glosses, from corrections of harsh or unusual forms of words or expressions, from alterations of the text to produce supposed harmony with another passage, whether to complete a quotation or to clear up a presumed difficulty, from insertions for liturgical objects, and even from alterations expressly made for dogmatic reasons. Thus, in the copies of the New Testament, as in copies of profane writers, imperfections are found of various kinds, due to some imperfections in the originals copied, such as illegibility; there are also those imperfections which result from the accidental mistakes of the transcribers; there are even those which arise from deliberate alteration for critical, resthetical, or religious reasons. Let us turn to actual examples. A very complete and suggestive classification of the varieties of error to be met with in manuscripts and versions of the New Testament is given by Prebendary Scrivener, in his excellent work to be named presently. He arranges the various readings of all kinds under the following heads. A brief summary of his remarks, with some additional illustrations, will give peculiar point to the need for a science of textual criticism.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See an interesting chapter in Falconer Madan's *Books in Manuscript*, 1893, entitled "The Blunders of Scribes and their Correction."

First, beginning with variations of the gravest kind, there are considerable doubts as to the authenticity of only two passages of any length, namely, the closing verses of Mark's Gospel (Mark xvi. 9–20) and the story in John of the woman taken in adultery (John vii. 53–viii. 11).

Secondly, akin to these omissions, there are a few interpolations; for example, the celebrated Codex Bezæ, now at Cambridge, inserts after Luke vi. 4 the interesting paragraph: "On the same day He beheld a certain man working on the Sabbath, and said unto him, Man, blessed art thou if thou knowest what thou doest; but if thou knowest not, thou art cursed and a transgressor of the law."

Thirdly, marginal notes have sometimes been adopted into the text, as in the famous instance, as it is believed, of the curious passage concerning the three witnesses, which, after having long been the great battle-ground of opposing critics, is now commonly rejected as spurious, being omitted from the Revised Version (1 John v. 7).

Fifthly, numerous variations occur in the order of words, the sense being slightly or not at all affected. Examples of this occur in every page. Thus we read in Acts, ὀνόματι Ανανίαν οτ Ανανίαν ὀνομάτι, and we read in Rev. iii. 15, ψυχρὸς οὔτε ζεστὸς οτ ζεστὸς οὔτε ψυχρός.

Sixthly, we find the mistaken substitution of words similar in appearance, an error peculiarly consequent upon the uncial mode of writing; thus, in Mark xiv. 65, some manuscripts read EAABON and some EBAAON, and in Mark v. 14 some have  $ANH\Gamma\Gamma EIAAN$  and some  $A\PiH\Gamma\Gamma EIAAN$ .

Seventhly, there are sometimes mistaken substitutions of words similar in sound, evidently arising from the penman misspelling because misunderstanding some word dictated to him; for example, in Phil. i. 30 ίδετε and εἴδετε, and in Matt. xi. 6 ἐταίροις and ἐτέροις are found. This kind of blunder is technically called "itacism," the principal interchanges in the most ancient manuscripts being  $\iota$  and  $\epsilon\iota$ , a $\iota$  and  $\epsilon$ , and in later times,  $\eta$ ,  $\iota$ , and  $\epsilon\iota$ ,— $\eta$ ,  $\iota$ , and  $\iota$ ,— $\iota$ 0 and  $\iota$ 0,— $\iota$ 0 and  $\iota$ 0,— $\iota$ 1 and  $\iota$ 2 and  $\iota$ 3.

Eighthly, there are certain insertions met with which were evidently made for the convenience of worship, introductory clauses and proper names being interpolated at the commencement of lessons in Scripture. These liturgical additions are frequent, as when in Luke vii. 31,  $\epsilon l \pi \epsilon \delta \epsilon \delta K \nu \rho \iota \sigma s$  is inserted. There are many parallels in the Book of Common Prayer.

Ninthly, some changes of text manifestly arise from deliberate assimilation to parallel passages in the New Testament; for example,  $\epsilon ls$   $\mu \epsilon \tau \acute{a}\nu o \iota a\nu$  is interpolated into Matt. ix. 13 from the passage in Luke v. 32.

Tenthly, passages are also assimilated to the Old Testament, transcribers correcting from reference what the authors had written from memory.

Eleventhly, by a curious but not unparalleled operation of mind, synonymous words are occasionally interchanged, as when in the Codex Bezæ,  $\delta\mu\mu\dot{\alpha}\tau\omega\nu$  is put for  $\delta\phi\theta\alpha\lambda\mu\dot{\omega}\nu$  in Matt. ix. 29. In Matt. xxii. 37  $\check{\epsilon}\phi\eta$  is to be preferred to  $\epsilon\hat{\delta}\pi\epsilon\nu$ .

Twelfthly, harsh or inaccurate or obscure constructions have sometimes been amended, one of the commonest grounds for change in the copies of the Apocalypse.

Thirteenthly, spelling is frequently modernised. Thus Καφαρναούμ is put for Καπερναούμ, τέσσερες for τέσσαρες, ἤλθαμεν for ἔλθομεν.

Fourteenthly, trifling variations in spelling are innumerable, as when  $\kappa a i \ \dot{\epsilon} \gamma \omega$  appears as  $\kappa \dot{a} \gamma \omega$ , and  $\dot{\epsilon} \dot{a} \nu$  as  $\ddot{a} \nu$ .

Fifteenthly, omissions and insertions of unimportant words, such as pronouns and particles, are very frequently met with.

Sixteenthly, great variations occur in the insertion or

omission of the Greek article, a peculiarity which is not always unimportant.

Seventeenthly, some various readings are due to the peculiarities of the ancient style of writing. Some prominent examples out of many are the following:—In Acts xvii. 26  $IIPO\Sigma TETAIMENOT\Sigma KAIPOT\Sigma$  may be two words or three. Then there is the much disputed passage as to os or  $\theta\epsilon os$ , in 1 Tim. iii. 16, due to the abbreviated writing of  $\theta\epsilon os$ , the question being whether the reading is  $O\Sigma$  or  $O\Sigma$ . Or there is the singular reading in Rom. xii. 11, "serving the time," where the true reading  $Kv\rho\iota\hat{\varphi}$  was first abbreviated into  $\overline{KP}\omega$ , and then read  $\kappa a\iota\rho\hat{\varphi}$ .

Eighteenthly, very naturally many variations are mere slips of the pen.

Nineteenthly, some various readings are manifestly critical corrections, as when in Rom. v. 1, some copies read  $\tilde{\epsilon}\chi\omega\mu\epsilon\nu$  for  $\tilde{\epsilon}\chi o\mu\epsilon\nu$ .

Twentiethly, some various readings are also evidently due to corrections because of doctrinal difficulties. For example, some manuscripts read the difficult question in Matt. xix. 17,  $T_k$   $\mu\epsilon$   $\lambda \acute{e}\gamma \epsilon \iota s$   $\dot{a}\gamma a\theta \acute{o}\nu$ ,— $T_k$   $\mu \grave{e}$   $\dot{e}\rho\omega\tau \hat{a}s$   $\pi\epsilon \rho \grave{\iota}$   $\tau o\hat{\upsilon}$   $\dot{a}\gamma a\theta o\hat{\upsilon}$ . To the same cause apparently the two readings in John i. 18 are due,  $\mu o\nu o\gamma \epsilon \nu \dot{\eta} s$   $\nu i\acute{o}s$  or  $\mu o\nu o\gamma \epsilon \nu \dot{\eta} s$   $\theta \acute{e}\acute{o}s$ . The history of the early heresies shows the manipulation of the text of Scripture because of doctrinal prepossessions.

Such being the state of the case, the need for such a science is made out. All praise to the devoted men, who, like Tregelles and Scrivener, even to the endangering of eyesight, have supplied such abundant materials for judgment that a working certainty as to the absolute accuracy of nineteen-twentieths of the New Testament is possible to all, whilst as to the remaining twentieth the relative unimportance of very large portions of the differences has been demonstrated. Large thanks are assuredly due to the long line of scholars who have so clearly shown that the variations found in the New Testament text, very numerous though they be, are rather of scientific than practical interest. Such a conclusion throws peculiar emphasis upon the historical course of this New Testament science, to which we proceed.

## § 40.

#### HISTORY OF THE TEXTUAL CRITICISM OF THE NEW TESTAMENT.

Two great epochs mark the course of the critical study of the Greek Testament text, the one of which was closed by the publication of the so-called *Textus Receptus*, and the other by the publication of the Greek text of the Revised Version. A third epoch, of emancipation from the authority of a few early uncials, seems to be just beginning.

I. The "Received Text" itself was the final phase in a noteworthy history, characterised by the appearance of the Complutensian Polyglot, the several editions of Erasmus, and the editions of Stephens, Beza, and the Elzevirs.

The Complutensian Polyglot was the first printed, although it was not the first published edition of the Greek New Testament, the volume in which the New Testament in Greek and Latin was contained having been completed on the 10th of January 1514, but for various reasons not having been published until 1522. This beautifully printed edition was undertaken under the auspices of the celebrated Spanish cardinal, Ximenes de Cisneros, Archbishop of Toledo. It received its name from Complutum, the Latin name of Alcala, where it was printed. The responsible editor of the New Testament section was Lopez de Stunica. As far as investigation has gone, the text seems to have been formed from cursive manuscripts alone, the Greek text having been accommodated here and there to the text of the Latin Vulgate. The esteem indeed in which the Vulgate was held may be judged from the fact that, when in the Old Testament sections of the polyglot the Vulgate version occupies the middle place, being flanked right and left by the Hebrew and the Septuagint, the editors have some curious remarks about the similarity to the crucifixion of Christ between two thieves.

The first published edition of the Greek New Testament was the first edition of Erasmus, which, having been printed in six months, was issued in 1516. The manuscripts which

Erasmus used for this edition are still for the most part preserved at Basle. None of them were of early date. Only one mutilated manuscript was employed for the Revelation, gaps in the text being supplied by retranslation into Greek from the Latin of the Vulgate. In some other places also the difficulties presented by the several manuscripts employed were adjusted on the testimony of the Vulgate. This first printed edition of the Greek text, hurriedly issued that it might forestall the Complutensian, naturally excited the attention, both laudatory and antagonistic, of scholars and theologians. A second and amended edition was published in 1519, alterations (some of which were mere errata) having been made to the number of 400, Mill calculated. Yet a third edition appeared in 1522, with 118 additional emendations, says Mill. A fourth edition was issued in 1527, containing 90 emendations in the Revelation alone adopted from the Complutensian, and with only ten alterations in the remaining New Testament books. A fifth edition, with only four changes, according to Mill, was published in 1535. It will be seen that this last edition of Erasmus became the basis of the Textus Receptus.

After printing two small editions, at Paris, of a text which blended the editions of the Complutensian and of Erasmus, Robert Stephens issued his folio edition in 1550, also at Paris. This edition followed Erasmus almost exclusively, some emendations and marginal readings being supplied from the Complutensian, and from fifteen manuscripts, the only ancient one of which was the Codex Bezw, or a good transcript. This issue had no division into verses. Soon afterwards Stephens published a further edition, at Geneva, with the same text as the earlier folio, and in this edition the division into modern verses appears. It is this text of Stephens' which forms our English Textus Receptus.

On the Continent, however, the *Textus Receptus* is a later edition of that of Stephens'. From 1565 to 1598 Theodore Beza published five editions, mostly following Stephens' text, yet not infrequently mentioning various readings on the authority of several manuscripts which Beza consulted, the more valuable of which were the *Codex Bezæ* of the Gospels

and the Acts, and the Codex Claromontanus of the Epistles of Paul. In 1624 the Elzevirs, the famous Leyden printers, issued their handy edition, the text adopted being that of Stephens' folio, with a few changes introduced from Beza. In 1633 the Elzevirs published their second edition, which has become the Textus Receptus of the Continent. The name originated in a sentence from the preface: "Textum, ergo habes, nunc ab omnibus receptum."

Thus substantially, it is evident, the Received Text, as it has been called, is the last edition of Erasmus.

II. With the publication of the Textus Receptus a new era in the criticism of the New Testament text commenced, an era in which the Textus Receptus itself was to be submitted to close scrutiny, with a view to the discovery of a still more accurate text. The principal phases in the course of this renewed scrutiny are marked by the critical editions of Mill, Wetstein, Griesbach, Scholz, Lachmann, Tischendorf, Tregelles, Alford, Westcott and Hort, and the Greek text of the Revised Version. It will be seen that the great work of this second epoch was really the collection of materials for criticism.

Several contributions to the data of New Testament textual criticism were made, it is true, before the edition of Mill. To these the briefest reference will suffice. Thus in the greatest of the polyglots, that of Walton, 1657, the readings of the early Codex Alexandrinus were placed at the foot of the Textus Receptus, which occupies the fifth volume, whilst a large collection of various readings collected from manuscripts of more or less value is given in the sixth volume. Other editions of the Textus Receptus, with various readings on the margin or at the foot of the page, were published by Curcellaus in 1658, and Bishop Fell, of Oxford, in 1675. At length, in 1707, appeared Dr. John Mill's Greek Testament, which became the forerunner of the more modern aspect of our science. Mill's plan was to reprint Stephens' text, inserting various readings in the margin, and prefixing to the whole historical, descriptive, and critical prolegomena. "It appears," says Tregelles in his excellent Account of the Printed Text of the Greek New Testament, "as if Mill's earnest and anxious

endeavour had been to bring together all the critical materials which were accessible, so that every aid might be presented to the Biblical student for forming a correct judgment as to the text of the Greek New Testament. He gathered together the various readings which had been previously noticed; he collated such Greek MSS. as were accessible to himself, and he procured collations of others to be made by his friends; and he first used the ancient versions in general and habitually, as well as the writings of the early fathers, as evidences of the ancient text." Thus it was Mill's honour to lead the way with sure tact and perseverance; but it required the labours of many minds through many years to elaborate his sketches into perfect charts. Thirty years of hard toil were spent by Mill upon his great work, and he died a fortnight after its completion. A second edition was called for in 1710, to which the editor added further readings from twelve additional manuscripts which he had collated.

After a short interval, during which some additions were made both to the data and the theory of our science by Bentley, of philological fame, and Bengel, the inimitable exegete, Wetstein published his Greek text in two folio volumes at Amsterdam in 1751 and 1752. The revised text elaborated by Wetstein is of little value. His great contribution to the study was his numerous careful collations of MSS., and his scholarly account of the various sources available for materials, his notes giving a complete résumé of all that was known up to his day. One aspect of Wetstein's method has left a very visible impress upon textual science. Wetstein distinguished the uncial MSS, which he employed by Roman letters, and the cursive MSS. by Arabic numerals, the notation recommencing in each of the four divisions of the New Testament which he adopted, viz. the Gospels, the Pauline Epistles, the Acts and the Catholic Epistles, and the Apocalypse. This notation remains, with all its inconveniences, to this day.

The edition of Griesbach in 1775 was in the main a critical examination, according to principles laid down by Griesbach, of the materials of Wetstein; although some additions were made from the personal investigations of the editor, especially amongst the Latin versions and the writings of Origen. However, Griesbach's principal contribution was to the theory of the science. To him is due the classification of the materials under three recensions, which he called the Western, the Alexandrian, and the Constantinopolitan, believing as he did that these three distinct texts could be traced back to Rome, and Alexandria, and Constantinople, a speculative theory loosely held by its author, which has given an undesirable trend to many later investigations. A second edition was published in 1796, very much amplified and improved, materials having increased, says Tregelles, cent per cent in the interval, notably because of the labours of Matthia, Alter, Birch, Adler, and Moldenhauer amongst editors, and Hearne, Woide, Kipling, Montfaucon, and Knittel amongst collators of ancient manuscripts. The great critical canon of Griesbach was the united testimony of his several recensions. Griesbach's maturest opinions are given in his Manual Edition of 1805.

In 1830 and 1836 Scholz published his Greek Testament in two volumes, the principal value of which again lies in the list of manuscripts which is given. Scholz was at least an enthusiastic seeker after materials, and he ransacked the libraries of Europe with such success that his list of MSS., says Tregelles, "is nearly double in number that which had accompanied the edition of Griesbach." His work is still referred to for information as to where manuscripts, and especially cursives, are preserved.

A very few years after, in 1842, came the first volume of the larger edition of Lachmann. Eleven years previously Lachmann had published a small edition, in which, discarding the Textus Receptus, he expressed his desire to attain the textus traditus of the fourth century. In his later edition he pursued the same end, making some important contributions to the science. His, for example, was the first Greek text which aimed at presenting the text of the most ancient authorities. Yet again, he bestowed the most careful attention upon the several Latin translations of the Greek Testament; and yet again, the question of the punctuation of the Greek text was carefully examined by him.

Such, then, were the critical labours which preceded the

greatest textual critic of the epoch we are describing, Constantine Tischendorf, whose lifelong toil has bequeathed a splendid inheritance to this age. His claims upon our gratitude follow upon the twofold results of his intellect and industry, viz. on the one hand, his splendid collations of the most ancient manuscripts, and on the other hand, his revised Greek texts, with their catalogues of authorities attached. The former branch of his work will always remain the finest evidence of his power. He searched for and examined manuscripts in France, Holland, England, and Italy; he even undertook journeys to the East, where he had the good fortune-sufficient fame in itself for one man-to discover the famous Codex Sinaiticus. His publications were very numerous, the most important naturally being his editions of ancient codices. Thus he collated and published, besides the monumental Sinaitic Codex, the valuable palimpsest known as the Codex Ephraemi, the precious Codex Claromontanus of the Pauline Epistles, and the long series of uncials, often mere fragments, contained in the ten quarto volumes of his Monumenta Sacra Inedita, and in his Anecdota Sacra et Profana, to mention only the more prominent of his printed editions. Further, he collated all the uncials known in his time, which had not been adequately collated by others, embodying the results in his several editions of the printed texts of the New Testament. These editions of the New Testament extend from 1850 to 1872. The last and best was the well-known Editio Octava Major, in 2 vols., 1869-1872. There is little doubt that Tischendorf was unconsciously biassed in favour of the authorities he himself discovered, and this eighth edition follows the Sinaitic Codex most irrationally; nevertheless these two volumes are indispensable to the scientific student, because of the vast materials for judgment amassed. Cursives require another Tischendorf to examine them before they can be used with judgment, and versions and quotations call for much more continuous study; but as regards the great uncials, Tischendorf's work, especially as revised by the aid of Tregelles, scarcely calls for further collation. Hence it was possible to say at his funeral, "Whoever in the future outstrips him will do it only

on the road Tischendorf marked out; whoever overcomes him will do so only by the weapons he himself has furnished." The prolegomena to the eighth edition, edited from Tischendorf's papers and completed to date, first by Ezra Abbot and next by Caspar Réné Gregory, was issued complete in 1894.

Contemporary with Tischendorf was Samuel Prideaux Tregelles. He too did invaluable work, on the one hand by issuing a revised text of the New Testament with large citations of authorities, and on the other hand by laborious and scholarly collations of ancient manuscripts, some of which he published in separate form. Singularly enough, as Tischendorf shows a peculiar bias from his confidence in the Sinaitic MS., technically called &, Tregelles displays as unmistakable a bias towards the readings of another of the earliest manuscripts, the famous Codex Vaticanus, technically called B. It is this bias which makes the text of his Greek Testament, published at intervals from 1857 to 1872, unreliable. His life-work, however, like Tischendorf's, was the accumulation of materials. He, as well as Tischendorf, collated many of the principal uncials, thus affording the learned world the unspeakable advantage of two independent witnesses. In many cases the friendship which existed between Tischendorf and Tregelles enabled these two leaders in their craft ultimately to come to unanimous opinions where at first their collations differed. Tischendorf died in December 1874, and Tregelles in April 1875, the latter having lost his sight in his trying labours.

Dean Alford, in his Greek Testament, deserving of honourable mention for its exegesis, also felt it necessary to form a new critical text, and to give therewith a digest of various readings. With one slight exception, viz. his collation of part of the esteemed Vatican Codex, technically called B, Alford obtained all his critical materials from others, especially from Tischendorf and Tregelles. All he desired to do was to form a critical text from the materials supplied by other investigators. Times, alas! were not ripe for such a text, for principles of criticism are just the great desiderata; and Alford also errs by unwarrantable reliance on a few of the oldest uncials.

The last critical text published is that of Westcott and Hort, published in two duodecimo volumes, 1881, the former of which contained the revised text, and the latter the elaborate introduction explaining the critical principles, and a lengthy appendix containing critical notes on select readings. In this instance, also, the reader is referred to Tischendorf and Tregelles for the materials for criticism, the great aim being first to ascertain the principles upon which a true text should be formed, and second, to deduce the original text according to these principles. This text will always have a historical value, as being substantially the text on which the Revised Translation is based. In this text, however, a preponderant influence is also allowed to one ancient code. If Tischendorf inclines to make the Sinaitic (8) the supreme arbiter, Westcott and Hort, like Tregelles, exalt unduly the great Vatican Code (B), especially when associated with &. This reliance, alas! vitiates their entire conclusions, Nor does the fact that those conclusions are arrived at after most erudite and lengthy speculation increase their value. No conclusion whatever, however logical, can ever warrant exclusive reliance on any single manuscript, however ancient, to the ignoring of all the remaining evidence of versions and quotations of an equal or a greater age. Natural science has often been misled by plausible theories, which have explained some phenomena but not all, and it has never been long before nature, expelled by a fork, has reasserted its rights: so too the voluminous facts unexplained—it is idle to regard them as frankly acknowledged in the theory of Westcott and Hort-will ere long be too much for the theory. This critical text does not, any more than that of Griesbach, break the general character of this second epoch in the textual criticism of the New Testament. This epoch has not yet passed away in the publication of the logical inferences from the voluminous materials accumulated. Materials have been accumulated from which to form a judgment; the new epoch will come when the judgment is formed on sound and thorough principles.

III. With Westcott and Hort's edition the second epoch in the history of the textual criticism of the New Testament

it is to be hoped will come to an end. It has been the epoch of the collection of materials. As far as the materials are concerned, it has given us an accurate knowledge of all the uncial manuscripts available; it has also given us some knowledge of the numerous cursive manuscripts and of the patristic citations, although in these two spheres much remains to be done. At the same time, whilst many details of evidence have been skilfully worked out, and various broad theories of general procedure have been attempted, it cannot be said that satisfactory conclusions have been formed therefrom. Hasty partial generalisations we have had: solid inductive results have not been as yet attained. Some signs that the reaction against the narrowness introduced by Lachmann is commencing there certainly are. somewhat exaggerated articles by Dean Burgon in the Quarterly Review, now published in a separate volume, mark the returning tide. Still more certainly does the accurate scholarship of everything written by Prebendary Scrivener point in the same direction. Nor should the very remarkable lectures given in Paris by Abbé Martin to the Higher School of Theology be forgotten, representing as they do a very high scholarship, together with a strong reactionary force. The great need of the time is the examination of the accumulated materials by a philosophic mind. There is plenty of room for the naturalist's study of facts, new and old, but there is greater room still for the man who can add broad and philosophic survey to the faculty of the specialist.

## § 41.

CRITICISM OF THE NEW TESTAMENT.<sup>1</sup>

## I. For Introductory Study.

Scrivener, F. H. A., A Plain Introduction to the Criticism of the

<sup>1</sup> It has not been felt necessary to insert the names of the best editions, whether of codices, versions, or fathers. Those who require such knowledge will find it in Scrivener's *Introduction*, and in books there indicated.

New Testament for the Use of Biblical Students, 4th edit., 2 vols., thoroughly revised, enlarged, and brought down to the present date, 1894; 1st edit. 1861. [It is better to study so complete a book partially than to turn to inferior works.]

Hammond, C. E., Outlines of Textual Criticism, applied to the New Testament, 12mo, 1st edit. 1872, 5th edit. 1890. [Much smaller.]

Warfield, Benj. B., An Introduction to the Textual Criticism of the New Testament, 12mo, 1886; see Theological Educator, § 15 (3.). [A guide to the practical application of Textual Criticism.]

Scrivener, F. H. A., Novum Testamentum, Textus Stephanici A.D. 1550, cum variis lectionibus editionum Bezæ, Elzeviri, Lachmanni, Tischendorfii, Tregellesii, Westrott-Hortii, Versionis Anglicane

emendatorum, Bell, 1887.

## II. For More Advanced Study.

## (1.) Palaography, or the Study of the Writing of the New Testament as Writing.

Montfaucon, Bernard de, *Paleographia Græca*, fol., Paris 1708. [It founded the science, and although some of its conclusions are faulty and its materials scant as compared with modern times, it is still a useful manual of its subject.]

Mabillon, John, De Re Diplomatica, in quibus quidquid ad veterum instrumentorum antiquitatem, materiam, scripturam et stilum, etc., pertinet, explicantur et illustrantur, 2 vols. fol., Naples, 3rd edit.

1789.

Kopp, U. L., Palæographia Critica, 4 vols. 4to, Mannheim, 1817–1829.

SILVESTRE, J. B., *Paléographie Universelle*, 1839, 4 vols. fol. [The second volume has numerous facsimiles of Greek and Latin MSS. made by hand, perhaps too artistically.]

Wattenbach, W., Anleitung zur griechischen Paläographie, Leipsic

1867, 4to, 12 plates in fol., 2nd edit. 1877.

— Anleitung zur lateinischen Palüographie, 4to, 1st edit. 1869, 3rd edit. 1878.

—— Das Schriftwesen des Mittelalters, 1871.

— Schrifttafeln zur Geschichte der griech. Schrift und zum Studium der griech. Paläographie, 2 parts, folio, with 40 plates.

— Exempla Codicum Latinorum litteris majusculis scriptorum,

Heidelberg 1876-79.

— Exempla Codicum Gracorum litteris minusculis scriptorum, Heidelberg 1878–79.

—— Scripturæ Græcæ Specimina, 1883.

[All books representing eminent service.]

Paleographical Society, The, Facsimiles of Manuscripts and Inscriptions, edited by E. A. Bond and E. M. Thompson, large folio, first series in 3 vols. 1873–1883. [A series of photographic facsimiles, two hundred and sixty in number, covering a period of more than two thousand years. Very many are characteristic codes of the New Testament, and many more bear on the palæography of the New Testament. A second series in 2 vols., edited by Bond, Thompson, and G. F. Warner, 1884-1894. Two hundred and five additional plates, making altogether an unexampled apparatus for the study of early Greek writing.

GARDTHAUSEN, V., Griechische Paliiographie, Leipsic 1879. [Manual, dealing with the history and literature, as well as with all that is known of the materials used and the characteristics of writing in all ages, careful lists being given of known writers, of dated manuscripts, of abbreviations of the more important catalogues extant of Greek manuscripts, of interpretative chronological tables, and elaborate tables being appended of the forms of letters in all the typical manuscripts from the earliest times.]

Berger, Philippe, Histoire de l'Ecriture dans l'Antiquité, Paris

1891.

THOMPSON, Ed. Maunde, Handbook of Greek and Latin Palwography, Paul, 1893. [A vol. of the International Science Series.]

## (2.) Textual Criticism.

Tregelles, S. P., An Account of the Printed Text of the Greek New Testament, with remarks on its Revision upon Critical Principles, together with a Collation of the Critical Texts of Griesbach, Scholz, Lachmann, and Tischendorf, with that in common use, Bagster, 1854. [Examines the various editions from the Complutensian downwards, remarks on the principles of textual criticism, and adds some full notes on several important Biblical passages.

Tregelles, S. P., An Introduction to the Critical Study and Knowledge of the Holy Scriptures, by T. H. Horne, the fourth volume of the twelfth edition of which, 1869, contains an Introduction to the Textual Criticism of the New Testament, written by Tregelles.

Davidson, Samuel, A Treatise on Biblical Criticism, exhibiting a Systematic View of that Science, new edit. 1854. [Really a treatise upon the textual criticism of both the Old and New Testaments, each being elaborately considered in a separate part.

Tischendorf, C., Novum Testamentum Grace, ad antiquissimos testes denuo recensuit, Apparatum Criticum omni studio perfectum apposuit, Commentationem Isagogicam prætextuit C. Tischendorf, editio octava critica major, 2 vols., Leipsic 1869-1872.

—, Ezra Abbot, and C. R. Gregory, vol. iii., Prolegomena, Leipsic 1884-1894. [Guide to the entire data of the science.]

Burgon, J. W., The Last Twelve Verses of the Gospel according to S. Mark, vindicated against Recent Critical Objectors and established, Parker, 1871. [A practical application of the principles of the science.]

Burgon, J. W., The Revision Revised, Three Articles reprinted from the "Quarterly Review": I. The Greek Text; II. The New English Version; III. Westcott and Hort's New Textual Theory; to which is added a reply to Bishop Ellicott's Pamphlet in defence of the Revisers and their Greek Text of the New Testament, including a Vindication of the Traditional Reading of 1 Tim. iii. 16, Murray, 1883. [Another practical application deserving study.]

Gardiner, F., The Principles of Textual Criticism, with a list of all the known Greek uncials, and a table representing graphically the parts of the text of the New Testament contained in each, Andover 1876. [A brief introduction, of 64 pages, to the science;

useful for its tables.]

Birks, T. R., Essay on the Right Estimation of Manuscript Evidence in the Text of the New Testament, Macmillan, 1878. [A plea for

rebellion against the exclusive use of a few early MSS.]

NEWTH, SAMUEL, Lectures on Bible Revision, with an Appendix containing the prefaces to the chief historical editions of the English Bible, Hodder & Stoughton, 1881. [By one of the Revisers; compares the claims of the Authorised and Revised Versions of the New Testament.]

Martin, Abbé I. P. P., Introduction à la Critique Textuelle du Nouveau Testament, Leçons professées en 1882-83, Paris 4to, 1883, Partie Theorique. [Lithographed lectures on the critical apparatus available, with many photographed facsimiles; Martin

is a follower of Scrivener's.]

Partie Pratique, 2 vols., 1883-84, Paris, 4to. [Lithographed lectures, examining the two problems, first what is the value of the recensions contained in the MSS., &, A, B, C, D, and second, what is the origin of the recension, and also examining at length the authenticity of Mark xvi. 9-20.]

—— Partie Pratique, vols. iii., iv., and v., 1885–86. [Vol. iii. is a textual examination of Luke xxii. 43, 44; vol. iv., a textual examination of John v. 3, 4, and vii. 53-viii. 2; vol. v., of

1 John v. 7.

— Supplement aux Leçons sur la Critique Textuelle du Nouveau Testament, professées en 1882-85,—Description Technique des Manuscrits grecs relatif au Nouveau Testament, conservés dans les Bibliothèques de Paris. [Examination, with many facsimiles, of all MSS, available in Paris, amongst which is an uncollated uncial

now called Codex Martinianus.]

Schaff, Philip, Companion to the Greek Testament and the English Version, with facsimile illustrations of MSS, and standard editions of the New Testament, New York 1883, 3rd edition 1888. [Treating (1) briefly of the language of the New Testament; (2) of the text, where an accurate and succinct account is given of the sources of the New Testament text extant; and (3) of the Authorised and Revised Versions, in which we have an authoritative history of the latter from the standpoint of an American reviser.]

Hall, Isaac H., A Critical Bibliography of the Greek New Testament, as published in America, with two facsimile illustrations, Philadelphia 1885. [Gives information of more than 250 editions from 1800 to date of publication.]

Abbott, T. K., Essays chiefly on the Original Texts of the Old and New

Testaments, Longmans, 1891.

WHITNEY, S. W., The Revisers' Greek Text, a critical examination of certain readings, textual and marginal, in the original Greek of the New Testament adopted by the late Anglo-American Revisers, 2 vols., 1892, Boston, U.S.A.

Rüegg, Arnold, Die neutest. Texthritik seit Lachmann, Zurich 1892. Weiss, Bernhard, see Texte und Untersuchungen, § 15 (3.) for his

various studies in textual criticism.

Kenyon, Fred. G., Our Bible and the Ancient Manuscripts, being a history of the Text and its translations, with 26 facsimiles, 2nd

edition, Spottiswoode, 1896.

Burgon, J. W., The Traditional Text of the Holy Gospels vindicated and established, arranged, completed, and edited by Edward Miller, Bell, 1896.

# § 42.

# NECESSITY FOR A SCIENCE OF THE TEXTUAL CRITICISM OF THE OLD TESTAMENT.

After the outline of New Testament textual criticism contained in the preceding sections, the branch of criticism which has earliest attained to anything like precision, the examination of the Old Testament science may be considerably abbreviated. The same causes have been at work, giving rise in the course of time to a multitude of various readings of the Old Testament text. Thus, as Kennicott, a great authority on this subject, has said, "All various readings... must be made either by omission, addition, transposition, or change; and these four different species of variation, or either of them, can be owing only to one of these two general causes—chance or design." Almost identical words have been used of the New Testament, and it would be perfectly easy to illustrate them from the Old Testament by as lengthy a classification of variations as was previously given.

Some have maintained, it is true, with singular temerity,

that the text of the Old Testament has been preserved to us from the days of Moses and the Prophets without any change whatever. Wolf could write in his learned *Bibliotheca*, "We do not think that any lapse or corruption of the Hebrew letters or vowels (sie) has been introduced into the Old Testament"; and the Helvetic Confession made the subscription binding upon its ministers and professors that there is no error in the present pointed Hebrew text. A vehement dispute which arose about the middle of the seventeenth century, set the question of fact at rest for ever; and Carpzov, who would fain cleave to the infallibility of the Hebrew text, acknowledged that the existing Hebrew manuscripts presented variations, but solved the difficulty by asserting that the true reading was certainly preserved in some manuscripts. What value these infallible readings were, if they had to be dug for and discovered, Carpzov did not say.

The question was at that time, as it must ever be, a

question of fact, and as a matter of fact innumerable variations of text, of the Old Testament equally with the New, do exist. The evidence is irresistible. Kennicott has tabulated variations by the tens of thousands. It has not been the divine Will to preserve the Old Testament any more than the New from the errors incidental to all committal to writing. Let a very few of these instances of variation suffice. When in the catalogue of Judges given in 1 Sam. xii. 11, the Hebrew reads "Bedan," and the Septuagint, whose reading Paul follows in the well-known passage in the Hebrews, reads "Barak," they cannot both be right, and the data point to a slip of the pen. When, according to the Second Book of Kings (viii. 26), "Two and twenty years old was Ahaziah when he began to reign; and he reigned one year in Jerusalem," and when, according to the Second Book of the Chronicles (xxii. 2), "Forty and two years old was Ahaziah when he began to reign; and he reigned one year in Jerusalem," again both cannot be correct, although they stand in the Hebrew text, and the readiest explanation is also a slip of the pen at some time. Again, in Joshua xxi. 36, 37, there is a clear case of omission due to homoioteleuton, for even the translators of the Authorised Version felt it necessary to insert, from the

Septuagint and the other versions, these two verses about the four cities of Reuben, which are not found to-day in the Hebrew text. Another instance of omission from the same cause is probably seen in Judges xvi. 13, 14, where the consecution of the narrative in the Hebrew is peculiarly inconsequential, reading as follows: "And Delilah said unto Samson, Hitherto thou hast mocked me, and told me lies: tell me wherewith thou mightest be bound. And he said unto her, If thou weavest the seven locks of my head with the web. And she fastened it with the pin, and said unto him, The Philistines be upon thee, Samson. And he awaked out of his sleep, and plucked away the pin of the beam and the web." Now compare the version from the Septuagint, which apparently inserts a verse absent from the extant Hebrew, thus avoiding the harshness of Samson's awaking from sleep before he has been put to sleep, "And Delilah said unto Samson. Hitherto thou hast mocked me, and told me lies: tell me wherewith thou mightest be bound. And he said unto her, If thou weavest the seven locks of my head with the web, and fasten them with a pin to the wall, then shall I be weak and be as another man, And it came to pass when he slept, that Delilah took seven locks of his head, and wove them with a web, and fastened them with a pin (into the wall), and said unto him, The Philistines be upon thee, Samson. And he awaked out of his sleep, and plucked away the pin of the beam and the web,"-certainly a much more natural narrative. Such instances might be largely extended, especially where numbers or names are concerned. The Old Testament texts are no more free from faults than the texts of the New Testament. There are even a few instances of deliberate alterations of text to serve the purposes of a party, as where, in Deut, xxvii, 4, the Hebrew reads "Ebal," and the Samaritan text reads "Gerizim"; or as where, in a few Hebrew manuscripts, "Manasseh" is written in Judges xviii. 30 instead of "Moses," to save the honour of the family of the latter. From these numerous variations of reading found in the various manuscripts and versions extant, a few instances of which have alone been given, arises the necessity of the science of Old Testament textual criticism.

## § 43.

#### PROBLEM OF THE TEXTUAL CRITICISM OF THE OLD TESTAMENT.

Now the materials available for a critical judgment upon the text of the Old Testament are—(1) the various Hebrew manuscripts extant, of which singularly enough none attain to anything like so great an age as the older uncial copies of the New Testament, it being doubtful whether any written copy of the Old Testament known is of earlier date than the ninth century of the Christian era; (2) various Hebrew manuscripts, such as the famous code of Hillel, which have been lost, but which are partially extant in quotations; (3) there is that invaluable critical production of Jewish scholarship, the extant Jewish text, the so-called Massoretic text, of which more presently; (4) there is that monument of the far past, the Samaritan Pentateuch; (5) there are the several versions of the Hebrew text, the Septuagint, and the Greek versions of Aquila, Theodotion, and Symmachus, the Targums, and the Syriac and Latin versions; and (6) there are the quotations from the Old Testament to be found in Jewish writers, some of whom are of a much greater age than our extant manuscripts of the Biblical text.

From these several classes of materials (classified somewhat differently from the materials for New Testament criticism because of the nature of the evidence) the problem is,—to resuscitate as far as is possible the actual words written by Moses, the Prophets, and the other holy men of old, whose literary productions find a place in the Old Testament canon. In one important particular, be it noted, the problem is complicated, or, as some would say, simplified, by a fact which has no parallel in the course of the history of the New Testament text. At no time has there been a minute, protracted, and authoritative investigation into the text of the New Testament made by the Christian leaders of all parties,—the text of the Revised Version is really no exception,—as was done by the Jews, to secure themselves against any

possible intrusion of error into their sacred books. The Christian Church has never as such undertaken to draw up a Greek text of the New Testament which, by the use of all sorts of expedients, should remain for all time invariable, absolutely proof indeed against the possibility of variation. Such a course was adopted by the Jewish Church. The so-called Massorah was compiled, and has been accepted by the Jews since its compilation, as the authoritative text of the Old Testament, as so authoritative in fact that it is to be feared that all texts which have varied from this standard have been destroyed by time, if not deliberately. All current Hebrew Bibles are more or less accurate reprints of this Massoretic text.

Thus the problem of Old Testament criticism, as far as the sacred text is concerned, becomes twofold, FIRST, to ascertain what was the Massoretic text, and, SECONDLY, to inquire how far that authoritative text represents the ipsissima verba of the Old Testament. What progress has been made towards the solution of these problems, a brief survey of the history of this science will show.

## § 44.

HISTORY OF THE TEXTUAL CRITICISM OF THE OLD TESTAMENT.

The history of the criticism of the text of the Old Testament divides itself into three stages—(1) the history of the formation of the Massorah, (2) the history of the printed editions of the Massorah, (3) the history of the attempts to adjudicate upon the critical value of the Massorah.

I. Massorah, meaning Tradition, is the technical term given to a long series of labours, the design of which was so to indicate the correct reading of the text as to preserve it against corruption. The vast arithmetical and linguistic results which are summarised under the name of Massorah were the work of certain Jewish critics, hence called "Masters of the Massorah," or, as they are more commonly named,

"Massoretes." Who they were, and when and where their singular work was accomplished, are points involved in much uncertainty. It is clear, however, that they were a class of Jewish scholars who regarded it to be their special function to "put" by all means in their power "a hedge" around the accuracy of the sacred text. In their method they shrank from no toil. They have noted, for example, with respect to the consonants of the traditional Hebrew text, that there are thirty letters written larger than the others, that there are thirty which are written smaller, that there are four which are suspended over the line, and nine which are placed upside down. They have notified that in one case a final mem is found in the heart of a word, that in one instance an initial mem appears at the end, and that in one an initial nun closes a word. They have counted how often each letter occurs. They have reckoned the middle letter in each book of Scripture: they have even reckoned the number of times in which each of the five letters which have final forms occurs in its final and in its initial form. They have noted any anomalies in the use of the vowel-points, accents, daghesh and mappig. They have registered all cases of full or defective writing, the number of times in which certain words occur at the beginning or end of a verse, every instance of ambiguity of meaning, of unusual pointing, of anomalous writing, of exceptional grammar. From such details let the minuteness as well as the irksomeness of this self-appointed task of the Massoretes be inferred. Another curious feature about this labour of love is that the Massorah does not all occur in a single manuscript, but has to be gathered from many, some manuscripts containing what others omit, and the entire sacred tradition being only available upon a collation of many codes and books. Possibly the entire tradition has not been committed to writing, but of what has been written it is necessary to say that the notes, in very abbreviated forms, are to be found on the margins of many Biblical manuscripts and printed editions, where they have been placed at the will of the scribe, who inserted what he wished of his inherited lore. The Massorah is divided into the Massorah Magna and Parva, the former comprehending the entire body of critical remarks found on the margins, and the latter being compiled from the still more abbreviated remarks interspersed between the columns.

II. Naturally enough the Massorah regulated for many years the publication of the Old Testament, the results of study being visible in the increasingly accurate approximation to the conditions described in the Massorah. And it is interesting to notice how, on the invention of printing, forty years before the issue of the first printed Greek text, the Psalter was published in quarto form, and how, before a dozen years had expired, the entire Hebrew Bible was published in 1488 at Soncino. This first Hebrew Bible was manifestly printed, however, from a manuscript which varied considerably from the traditional text. Other editions therefore followed, e.q. to mention the more influential, the Brescian edition in 1494; the first edition of Bomberg in 1518; the Complutensian, published in 1522; Bomberg's second edition, edited by Rabbi Jacob ben Chajim, in 1526; the famous Antwerp Polyglot in 1572, the Hebrew text of which was reprinted in the great Paris Polyglot of 1641, as well as in Walton's splendid polyglot of 1657; and the edition of Athias in 1661. All of these editions were professedly corrected in accordance with the instructions of the Massorah. A third edition of the issue by Athias, the edition of 1667, with a preface by Leusden, was repeated in Van der Hoogt's elegant edition, and has become substantially the current Hebrew text of to-day.

III. The next step in the criticism of the Old Testament text was manifestly to endeavour to appraise the value of the Massoretic text itself. Critical labours of this kind were undertaken by both Jews and Christians before the middle of the seventeenth century. However, the father of Old Testament criticism in its modern sense was Ludovicus Cappellus or Louis Cappel, noted for having successfully demonstrated the late date of the Hebrew vowel-points, whose great work, erudite and laborious, published in 1650, amongst much other valuable critical matter, gave a collection of various readings and errors which had crept into the text of

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The edition I have used belonged to Tregelles,—the second edition, edited by Vogel, and published in 3 vols. at Halle 1775–1786.

the Bible. The same line of study was pursued with vigour in the scholarly Prolegomena to Walton's Polyglot; in the preface to the edition of the Hebrew Bible by Jablonsky, 1699; in the edition of the Hebrew Bible by J. H. Michaelis, 1720, where are given a collection of various readings and a collation of the best printed editions, together with a few Hebrew manuscripts; in the edition of C. H. Houbigant, 1753, who, to valuable prolegomena on the subject, added critical notes, correcting the text given, that of Van der Hoogt, by means of the Samaritan Pentateuch, a few Hebrew manuscripts, and the ancient versions, and added at the same time a new Latin version expressive of such a text as the critical emendations appeared to justify; in the so-called Mantuan Bible, published from 1742-1744, which contained a critical commentary by Norzi, a Mantuan Rabbi, who had carefully studied for his purpose the several editions and manuscripts of the Old Testament he could obtain, as well as various manuscripts of the Massorah, the Talmud and Jewish interpreters; and in a few minor contributions to critical studies, which have been carefully catalogued by Kennicott, in his Second Dissertation, pp. 492-494. The bare mention of these several labourers and their works will suffice to introduce the great chief in this branch of study, Benjamin Kennicott.

Benjamin Kennicott, who stands in the front rank of the Biblical scholars Oxford has produced, devoted the best years of a laborious life to the study of the Old Testament text. In 1753, Kennicott published his first work on The State of the Printed Hebrew Text of the Old Testament Considered. This was a dissertation in two parts, the first of which compared 1 Chron. xi. with 2 Sam. v. and xxiii., and the second part of which contained observations on seventy Hebrew manuscripts, with an abstract of mistakes and various readings. The aim throughout was to establish the certainty of corruptions in the printed Hebrew text, and to point out some original readings which had become lost. Six years later Kennicott published his Second Dissertation, "wherein the Samaritan copy of the Pentateuch is vindicated; the printed copies of the Chaldee Paraphrase are proved to be

corrupted; the sentiments of the Jews on the Hebrew text are ascertained; an account is given of all the Hebrew manuscripts now known, and also a particular catalogue of a hundred and ten Hebrew manuscripts in Oxford, Cambridge, and the British Museum." The most important part of this dissertation was its fourth chapter, where a history of the Hebrew text is given from the close of the Hebrew canon to Christ, thence to the days of Jerome, thence to the conclusion of the Talmud, on to the days of Ben Asher and Ben Naphtali, about the year 1000 A.D., on again to the invention of printing, and on vet again to the date at which Kennicott wrote. Able, however, as these dissertations were, they were but "chips from the workshop," as were ten annual accounts of his collations of Hebrew manuscripts which appeared from 1760 to 1769. At length in 1776 and 1780 appeared Kennicott's magnum opus, in 2 vols. folio, his Vetus Testamentum Hebraicum cum Variis Lectionibus. To the second volume was appended a Dissertatio Generalis, in which an account is given of the manuscripts and other authorities collated for the work, and a history of the Hebrew text from the time of Ezra. The text printed by Kennicott was Van der Hoogt's, with which all the manuscripts were collated. Variations in pointing being disregarded in the collations, the Hebrew points were not inserted even in the text. The various readings were printed at the bottom of the page, with references to the corresponding readings of the text. In the Pentateuch the variations of the Samaritan text were printed in a column parallel to the Hebrew, variations in this text itself offered by manuscripts being printed beneath. The various readings given were derived from no less than 694 sources, identified by numerals; Nos. 1-88 representing Hebrew MSS, at Oxford; Nos. 89-144 representing Hebrew MSS, of Cambridge, London, Great Britain generally, and America; Nos. 145-254 representing Hebrew MSS, in other parts of Europe; Nos. 255-300 standing for various printed editions and a few additional MSS.; Nos. 301-649 designating other European MSS, examined by Professor Bruns, a coadjutor; and Nos. 650-694 utilising some other MSS, and printed books not previously mentioned. The labour was

enormous, and the two folios remain to-day a vast storehouse of materials for criticism. But they contain only materials, and materials now seen to be most ill-assorted. The monumental labours of Kennicott celebrate no solid advance towards the criticism of the Old Testament text itself. What he has done is to collate many written and printed sources with care, though not with the greatest care. Much more has to be done before the threshold of actual criticism can be crossed, as the history of the textual criticism of the New Testament clearly shows. Even the manuscripts, the location and general characteristics of which Kennicott has described, and the contents of which he has collated, must be closely interrogated by other investigators before they can be rendered really useful. All these 694 sources are not equally valuable. Which of these MSS are original? what are their ages? what are their general characteristics? how many of them are copies, or copies of copies of Massoretic texts? how many of them go behind the Massoretic texts?—until questions like these are asked and answered, it is unscientific to treat these manuscripts like so many independent and equally reliable witnesses. The very a, b, c of the textual criticism of the Old Testament has, in fact, to be formulated.

Before passing on to the modern phase of the history, a continuator of the labours of Kennicott calls for mention. De Rossi, the great Hebraist, published at Parma, from 1784-1788, four quarto volumes, entitled Variae Lectiones Veteris Testamenti, and described as "derived from an immense series of manuscripts and published codes," to which was added in 1798 an additional volume of Scholia Critica, or supplements to the various readings of the sacred text. These five volumes were an enlargement and emendation of Kennicott's work, containing collations of 731 additional manuscripts, and 300 additional printed editions. The work thus contained various readings collected out of 1346 MSS. and 352 editions, compared, be it noted, not throughout, but only in passages about which there was any question. De Rossi's prolegomena are also of considerable value, because of his intimate familiarity with Hebrew literature. In many places he has corrected errors of transcription made by Kennicott.

Very little has been done for the text of the Old Testament since De Rossi. Two rising German scholars seem, however, to be devoting themselves to this fascinating branch of study—Strack and Nestle; whilst Dr. Ginsburg is completing his splendid edition of the Massorah. Baer, too, is making rapid strides in his publication of the correct Massoretic text. The several versions are being made the subject of erudite monographs by scholars like Petermann, Harkavy, Frankel, Vercellone, and Lagarde. The next few years ought therefore to see considerable advance in this section of Biblical theology.

## § 45.

BOOKS RECOMMENDED FOR THE STUDY OF THE TEXTUAL CRITICISM OF THE OLD TESTAMENT.

## I. For Introductory Study.

Buhl, Frants, Canon and Text of the Old Testament, translated by John Macpherson, T. & T. Clark, 1892.

# II. For More Advanced Study.

## (1.) Textual Criticism of the Old Testament.

Strack, H. L., Prolegomena Critica in Vetus Testamentum Hebraicum quibus agitur (1) de codicibus et dependitis et adhuc exstantibus, (2) de textu bibliorum hebraicorum qualis talmudistarum temporibus fuerit, Leipsic 1873. [Packed full of matter concerning the codes lost and extant, and concerning the testimony of the Talmud to the Old Testament text.]

CORNILL, C. H., Das Buch des Propheten Exechiel, Leipsic 1886.

[170 pages given to the questions of text.]

RYSSEL, VICTOR, Untersuchungen über die Textgestalt und die Echtheit des Buches Micha, Leipsic 1887. [198 pages given to the questions of text.]

Workman, G. C., The Text of Jeremiah, or, a critical investigation of the Greek and Hebrew, with the variations in the LXX., retranslated into the original and explained, T. & T. Clark, 1889.

Driver, S. R., Notes on the Hebrew Text of the Books of Samuel, with an introduction on Hebrew paleography and the ancient versions and facsimiles of inscriptions, Oxford 1890.

Abbott, T. K., Essays Chiefly on the Original Texts of the Old and New Testaments, Longmans, 1891. [First essay treats of the Massoretic Text, and the second of the Hebrew Text before the Massoretes.

Graetz, H., Emendationes in Plerosque Sacrae Scripturae Veteris Testamenti Libros secundum veterum versiones nec non auxiliis criticis cateris adhibitis, edidit Guil. Bacher, Breslau; part 1, 1892, Isaiah and Jeremiah; part 2, 1893, Ezekiel, Minor Prophets, and parts of Psalms and Proverbs; part 3, 1894, Pentateuch, Judges, Samuel, and Kings.

HAUPT, PAUL (editor), The Sacred Books of the Old Testament, a critical edition of the Hebrew Text, printed in colours, with notes prepared by eminent Biblical scholars of Europe and America, Leipsic, Baltimore, and London, 1894, and still issuing: Leviticus, Joshua,

Samuel, Job, and Psalms have been already published.

#### List of Contributors.

Exodus, Herbert E. Ryle (Cambridge). Leviticus, S. R. Driver and H. A. White (Oxford). Numbers, J. A. Paterson (Edinburgh). Deuteronomy, George A. Smith (Aberdeen). Joshua, W. H. Bennett (London). Judges, Geo. F. Moore (Andover). Samuel, K. Budde (Strassburg).

Kings, B. Stade (Giessen) and F. Schwally (Strassburg). Isaiah, T. K. Cheyne (Oxford). Jeremiah, C. H. Cornill (Königsberg). Ezekiel, C. H. Toy (Cambridge, Mass.). Hosea, A. Socin (Leipzig). Joel, Francis Brown (New York). Amos, John Taylor (Keswick). Obadiah, Andrew Harper (Melbourne, Australia).

Jonah, Friedrich Delitzsch (Leipzig).

Micah, J. F. M'Curdy (Toronto).

Genesis, C. J. Ball (London).

Nahum, Alfred Jeremias (Leipzig). Habakkuk, W. H. Ward (New York). Curtis (New Zephaniah, E. L. Haven). Haggai, G. A. Cooke (Oxford). Zechariah, W. R. Harper (Chicago). Malachi, C. G. Montefiore and I. Abrahams (London). Psalms, J. Wellhausen (Marburg). Proverbs, A. Müller (Halle) (deceased). Job, C. Siegfried (Jena). Song of Songs, Russell Martineau (London).
Ruth, C. A. Briggs (New York). Lamentations, M. Jastrow, jr. (Philadelphia). Ecclesiastes, Paul Haupt (Baltimore). Esther, T. K. Abbott (Dublin). Daniel, A. Kamphausen (Bonn). Ezra.H. Guthe (Leipzig). Nehemiah. Chronicles, R. Kittel (Breslau).

Beer, G., Der Text des Buches Hiob untersucht, part 1, cc. i.-xiv., Marburg 1895.

## (2.) Hebrew Manuscripts edited, and Hebrew Paleography.

Note. - Lists of Hebrew MSS. will be found-in addition to those in Le Long, Bibliotheca Sacra; Wolf, Bibliotheca Hebraica; Kennicott and De Rossiin the several publications of Steinschneider, viz.: Die hebräischen Handschriften in München, 1875; Catalog der hebräischen Handscriften in der Stadtbibliothek zu Hamburg, 1878; Die Handschriftenverzeichnisse der königt. Bibliothek zu Berlin, Band II, Verzeichniss der hebräischen Handscriften, Berlin 1878, and his catalogue of the Hebrew Books in the Bodleian. Strack has given an admirable section in his Prolegomena Critica to the mentioning of the various bibliographical works upon Hebrew MSS, issued by the various great libraries, to which the above catalogues should be added, as also should the Catalogue of St. Petersburg MSS. by Harkavy and Strack, published at St. Petersburg 1875.

Loew, Leopold, Beiträge zur jüdischen Alterthumskunde, Leipzig 1870, etc. [The first volume deals with materials and products of

writing among the Hebrews.]

GINSBURG, C. D., The Moabite Stone, Facsimile of the Original Inscription, with an English Translation and a Historical and Critical Commentary, 2nd edit. 4to, Reeves & Turner, 1871. [Gives the various translations of this important early inscription. and shows the importance of the Moabite Stone historically. theologically, linguistically, and palæographically.

Muralt, D. von, Urkündliche Beiträge zur hebräischen Paläographie und zur Geschichte der Punktation und des Karäertums. [Article in the Theologische Studien und Kritiken for 1874 on the interesting St. Petersburg manuscripts discovered by Firkowitch.]

PALEOGRAPHICAL SOCIETY, Oriental Series, Facsimiles of Manuscripts and Inscriptions, 1875-1883, folio. [Facsimiles of many important Old Testament MSS, and of important inscriptions.]

Strack, H. L., Prophetarum posteriorum Codex Babylonica Petropolitana, folio, St. Petersburg 1876. [A photographic facsimile, with scholarly introduction, of this Babylonian MS. of the year 916 A.D., now at St. Petersburg, and important both for

its contents and its Babylonian system of vowel-points.]

Harkavy, A., Neuanfyefundene hebritische Bibelhandschriften, with five photographed tables, St. Petersburg 1884, 4to. [Describes and characterises some fifty-one newly-found Hebrew manuscripts and fragments, some of which are of singular interest palæographically and textually.]

## (3.) Editions of the Massorah, and Introductions thereto.

Bomberg's Second Rabbinic Bible, . . . שער יהוה הקדש, i.e., Sacred Gate of God, Venice 1524-25, 4 vols. folio, edited by the celebrated Jacob ben Chajim. [Besides containing various rabbinic commentaries, this is the first printed edition of the Massorah, the margins being filled up with as much of the Massorah Magna and Parva as they would admit, the remainder being given in alphabetical order at the end of the fourth volume. Dr. Ginsburg has published an English translation of the invaluable Introduction, with explanatory notes, in the Journal of Sacred Literature for 1863; a second edition was published separately in London, 1867.]

Levita, Elias, חספר מסורת המסורת Venice 1536, 4to. [Introduction to the Massorah: the text has been issued by Ginsburg, 1867,

with English translation and notes.

Buxtorf, J. (the elder), Tiberias sire Commentarius Masorethicus Tripler, 1st edit. Bâle 1620, last edit. Bâle 1665, 4to and folio. [Invaluable, first for its historical view of the Massorah, and second for its key to the Massoretic abbreviations and technicalities.

Baer, S., Liber Genesis e fontibus Masorce illustrarit, notis criticis confirmarit S. Buer: Praefatus est F. Delitzsch, Leipsic 1869.

This edition of Genesis, which has been followed by Job, the Psalms, Proverbs, Isaiah, Daniel, Ezra, and Nehemiah, the Minor Prophets, and the remaining books of the Old Testament (except, as yet, the last four books of the Pentateuch), aims at presenting, with very brief explanatory notes, the accurate Massoretic text.]

Frensdorff, Sal., Massoretisches Wörterbuch, Hanover and Leipsic 1876, 4to. [The first part of an edition of the Massorah Magna,

containing the Massorah in alphabetical order.]

BAER, S., and H. L. STRACK, Die Dikduke ha-teamim des Ahron ben Moscheh ben Ascher und andere alte grammatisch-massorethische Lehrstücke, zur Feststellung eines richtigen Textes des hebräischen Bibel, etc., Leipsic 1879. [The probable date of this Massorete

was 950 A.D.]

GINSBURG, CHRISTIAN D., The Massorah Compiled from Manuscripts, Alphabetically and Lexically Arranged,—vol. i., Aleph to Yod, London 1880, folio; vol. ii., Caph to Tav, 1883; vol. iii., supplementary, 1885; vol. iv., not yet published, will contain "the dissertations on the rise and development of the Massorah, as well as the translation and explanation of each rubric." [Promises to be the standard work on the Massoretic text.]

#### (4.) The Samaritan Pentateuch and Old Testament Textual Criticism.

Morinus, John, Exercitationes in utrumque Samaritanum Pentateuchum, Paris 1631, 4to. [The first manuscript of the Samaritan Pentateuch was brought to Europe by Pietro de la Valle, the discoverer of the inscription of Persepolis, in 1623, and was printed by Morinus in the Paris Polyglot, whence it was copied into Walton's Polyglot; in this volume Morinus examines the nature and value of this version.]

Benj., Pentateuchus Hebravo-Samaritanus charactero BLAYNEY, Hebraro-chaldaico, Oxford 1790. [Text with various readings.]

Gesenius, W., De Pentateuchi Samaritani origine, indole, et auctoritate, Halle 1815, 4to.

Winer, G.B., De Versionis Pentateuchi Samaritana indole, Leipsic 1817. Nicholas, G. F., Grammar of Samaritan Language, with extracts and vocabulary, London 1859.

Petermann, H., Pentateuchus Samaritanus, ad fidem librorum MSS. apud Nablusianos repertorum, fasc. i. Genesis, Berlin 1872;

Exodus, 1882; Leviticus, 1883; Numbers, 1885.

Brüll, A., Das samaritan. Targum zum Pentateuch, Frankfort 1873-1876, five parts, with two appendices.

Kohn, S., Zur Sprache, Literatur und Dogmatik der Samaritaner. Leipsic 1876.

## (5.) The Greek Versions and Old Testament Text.

Hody, Humphrey, De Bibliorum Textibus Originalibus, Versionibus

Graveis, et Latina Vulgata, libri IV., pramittitur Historia Gravee et Latine, Oxford, small fol., 1705. [Still a standard book, although requiring correcting and supplementing by knowledge of

later date.

Holmes, Robert (continued, after vol. i., by Jacob Parsons), Vetus Testamentum Gravum cum Variis Lectionibus, Oxford 1798-1827, 5 vols. fol. [Does for the Septuagint what Kennicott did for the Hebrew text; about 1000 cursives and 16 uncials are examined.]

Frankel, Z., Historische-kritische Studien zu der Septuaginta, vol. i.,

Vorstudien zu der Septuaginta, Leipsic 1841.

— Ueber den Einfluss der palästinischen Exegese auf die alexandrinische Hermeneutik, Leipsic 1851,

— Ueber palästinische und alexandrinische Schriftforschung,

Breslau 1854, 4to.

Tischenderf, C., Vetus Testamentum Grace juxta LXX. Interpretes, Textum Vaticanum Romanum emendatius edidit, argumenta et locos Novi Test. parallelos notavit, omnem lectionis varietatem codicum vetustissimorum Alexandrini, Ephraemi Syri, Friderico-Augustani subjunxit, prolegomenis et epilegomenis instruxit C. Tisch., editio quarta, identidem emendata, prolegomenis passimque etiam commentariis, ex codice Sinaitico aliisque auctis, 2 vols., Leipsic 1869, 1st edit. 1850. A sixth edition was issued in 1880, edited by Eberhard Nestle, in which the prolegomena were carefully revised, and more accurate readings of the Vatican and Sinaitic MSS. were put in an appendix.

Field, Frederick, Origenis Hexaplorum que supersunt; sire veterum interpretum græcorum in totum Vetus Testamentum fragmenta, post Flaminium Nobilium, Drusium et Montefalconium, adhibita etiam versione syro-hexaplari, concinnarit, emendavit et multis partibus auxit, 2 vols. 4to, Oxford. [A monument of English

scholarship, with most erudite prolegomena.]

Bagster's Greek LXX., with an English translation, and with various readings and critical notes, Bagster, 1878. [A handy edition.]

LAGARDE, P. DE, Ankündigung einer neuen Ausgabe der griech.

Uebersetzung des Alten Testamentes, Göttingen 1882.

—— Librorum Veteris Testamenti Canonicorum, pars prior Greece studio et sumptibus edita, Göttingen 1883. [The second vol. with prolegomena is not yet published; promises to be an invaluable edition.]

Swete, Henry Barclay, The Old Testament in Greek according to the Septuagint, vol. i., Genesis to 4 Kings, 1887, new edit. 1895; vol. ii., 1 Chron. to Tobit, 1891; vol. iii., Hosea to 4 Maccabees, 1894, Cambridge University Press. [The best edition.]

Ryle, H. E., Philo and Holy Scripture, or the quotations of Philo from the broks of the Old Testament, with introduction and notes, Macmillan, 1895.

#### (6.) The Latin Versions and Old Testament Text.

Biblia Sacra Vulgatæ editionis Sixti V. jussu recognita atque edita, Rome, folio, 1592. [The authorised Romish edition, often reprinted.

Hody, see (5.).

Sabatier, P., Bibliorum sacrorum latine versiones antique seu vetus italica et catera quarunque in codicibus MSS. et antiquorum libris reperiri potuerunt, 3 vols. folio, 1743, Rheims; an augmented edition, 1749-51. [The first two vols. give fragments of old Latin versions collected from the Fathers: a series of supplementary works are given by Keil, Introduction to the Old Testament, English translation, vol. ii. p. 249; to which should be added E. Ranke, Fragmenta revsionum sacre scripture latine antehieronymiane, Vienna 1868, 4to, and Robert Ulysse, Pentateuchi versio latina antiquissima e codice Lugdunensi, Paris 1881, folio.]

Ess, L. van, Pragmatische-kritische Geschichte der Vulgata, Tübingen

1824. [Romanist.]

Kaulen, Fr., Geschichte der Vulyata, Mainz 1868. [Romanist.] Ronsch, H., Itala und Vulgata, das Sprachidiom der urchristlichen Itala und kathol. Vulgata unter Berücksichtigung der röm. Volksprache erläutert, Marburg 1869. Also Studien zur Itala in Zeitschrift für wissenschaftl. Theologie, vols. xxi., xxii., xxv.

Heyse and Tischendorf, Biblia Sacra latina Hieronymo interprete ex antiquissima auctoritate in stichos descripta, Leipsic 1873.

Ziegler, L., Die lateinischen Bibelübersetzungen vor Hieronymus und die Itala des Augustinus, Munich 1879, 4to. [Asserts the multiplicity of Latin translations, as against the view of Cardinal Wiseman that there was but one Italic version.

Berger, Samuel, Histoire de la Vulyate pendant les premiers siècles du Moyen Age, mémoire couronné par l'Institut, Paris 1893.

## (7.) The Aramaic Versions and the Old Testament Text.

Geiger, Abr., Urschrift und Uebersetzungen der Bibel in ihrer Abhängigkeit von der inneren Entwickelung des Judenthums, Breslau 1857.

Etheridge, J. W., The Targums of Onkelos and Jonathan ben Uzziel on the Pentateuch, with the fragments of the Jerusalem Targum, from the Chaldee, 2 vols. 12mo, 1862, 1865, Longmans.

Deutsch, Emanuel, Literary Remains, Murray, 1874. [Contains an article on the Targums, reprinted from the third vol. of

Smith's Dictionary of the Bible.

Berliner, A., Targum Onkelos, herausgegeben und erläutert, 1st part, text after the editio sabioneta of 1557; 2nd part, notes, introduction, and register, Berlin 1884. [A first attempt at a critical pointed edition.

#### BIBLICAL PHILOLOGY.

§ 46.

PROBLEM AND UTILITY OF THE PHILOLOGY OF THE OLD TESTAMENT.

Two questions preliminary to the actual interpretation of the Bible have already occupied us, viz. first, what constitutes the Bible? and second, how far do we know the original words of the Bible? We now take another step. From the letter of the Bible, we pass to the languages in which those original texts were written. To textual it is necessary to add linguistic criticism. However, Old Testament Hebrew and New Testament Greek are languages so diverse that it is better to treat them apart, simply premising that whilst it is indispensable to any student of the Bible to be conversant with the Bible, at least in its English dress. it is equally indispensable to any scientific student of the contents of Scripture to have some acquaintance with the original tongues in which those precious contents were written. Confining ourselves, then, for the present to the sacred language of the Old Testament, the utility of a knowledge of Biblical Hebrew is evident from the following considerations

First, in addition to the linguistic interest of Hebrew from its unlikeness to any European tongue, and its being a prominent example of quite another class of languages, a knowledge of Hebrew introduces us, as a familiarity with any alien language does, to a more intimate acquaintance with a foreign people. To think the thoughts of a people, there is no course so direct as to know their language.

Secondly, some knowledge of Hebrew is requisite to all intimate understanding of the Old Testament, the contents of which, while they have their own unparalleled interest as religious records of any kind, have their own practical importance for the modern world.

THIRDLY, without a knowledge of Hebrew, the Hebrew element in the yet more important New Testament idiom will be liable to be misunderstood.

For such reasons,—for the value of Hebrew in comprehending the Hebrews, and their faith, and the Christianity to which they were the forerunners,—the Hebrew language of the Old Testament can scarcely be neglected by the student of theology without detriment. Assuredly the acquisition of this Shemitic tongue is but a means to an end, and undoubtedly the amount of the acquisition may be regulated by that end, by the aid imparted, that is to say, in the interpretation of Scripture; but true as it is that a theologian need not master the whole range of Hebrew studies, it is equally true that entire neglect of those studies is irreparable. The great point is to study Hebrew sufficiently to ensure complete grasp of the interpretation of Scripture. Hebrew has passed through various phases. There is so-called classic Hebrew, such as prevailed from the days of Samuel to the Exile. This phase must have been preceded by a more archaic Hebrew, some remains of which are to be seen, say, in the Song of Deborah. Further, this classic Hebrew merged, under the influence of the Babylonian exile, into an Aramaised and less pure Hebrew. Yet again there is post-Biblical Hebrew,—Rabbinic Hebrew, with its own peculiar development until the twelfth century of our era. And yet again, a few portions of the Old Testament are not written in Hebrew at all, but in a cognate dialect called Aramæan or Chaldee, as in Dan. ii. 4-vii. 28; Ezra iv. 8-vi. 18, and vii. 12-26. Further, it was in Aramæan that the Jews of the Holy Land spoke in the days of our Lord; and it was in Aramæan that the Jewish paraphrases called the Targums, and the Jewish commentary on the Law called the Mishna, were written. Now all these branches of Hebrew may be studied for their own sake and for the sake of the special knowledge to which they lead; they each have their own peculiar fascination, notably Rabbinic Hebrew and Aramæan; but it is not contended that all who would have a firm hold upon Biblical theology require to study these several branches. The great end to be kept in view is a sure and

firm interpretation of Scripture, and that is attained by a knowledge, and that of no very minute kind, of classical Hebrew.

## § 47.

#### HISTORY OF THE STUDY OF BIBLICAL HEBREW.

Confining attention, therefore, to Biblical Hebrew, the main epochs in the study of this sacred language may be mapped as follows. There have been four periods of study, each characterised by its peculiar bent.

The first epoch was that of the traditional study by the successive Rabbinic schools to the close of the Massoretic period, about the end of the tenth century A.D. These traditional investigations, which must have a considerable value, call for much more careful examination by Hebrew philologers than they have yet received.

The SECOND EPOCH was that of the early Jewish grammarians, who flourished in the Rabbinic schools from the tenth to the sixteenth century, and many of whose works are extant to-day.

The THIRD EPOCH was that of the early Christian studies which, having been started by Reuchlin, the great humanist, who died in 1522, pursued a line of their own. Hebrew had been for centuries an unknown tongue in the Christian Church, and, the steadying influence of the philological interpretation being lost, the Old Testament had become almost a sealed book under the extravagances of the allegorical method, of which more will be heard presently. Reuchlin, who himself learnt Hebrew of certain Jewish scholars, opened up a new era in Biblical as well as Hebraic study by the publication of his Rudimenta Linguæ Hebraicæ. Naturally enough the traditional philology of the Jewish schools governed the entire epoch.

A FOURTH EPOCH is seen in the modern comparative and critical study of Hebrew inaugurated by Gesenius, who published his principal works from 1810 to 1842. His great aim everywhere was to answer the questions, what

Hebrew is, what history it has had, what are its laws, what are its peculiarities, what are the meanings and what the grammatical forms of its words. Gesenius, who has been followed in this line of study by Böttcher, as far as grammatical investigation is concerned, was the great master, that is to say, of the empirical study of Hebrew. The work of Gesenius upon the history of Hebrew study, his Geschichte der hebräischen Sprache und Schrift, Eine philologisch-historische Einleitung in die Sprachlehren und Wörterbücher der hebräischen Sprache, Leipsic 1815, is still the best book upon its subject. Upon this empirical study Ewald, Olshausen, and König have advanced, asking, with much gift for the inquiry, especially in the case of Ewald, what rational explanation can be given of these accumulated facts: these three scholars thus showing themselves masters of the philosophical study of the language, having used very largely a wide knowledge of the related Shemitic languages, notably Arabic. Fürst and Delitzsch, with more reverence for the older Rabbinic teachers, have exercised a conservative influence of a very beneficial kind. New light is also coming from another quarter. If later developments of the Shemitic tongues have shed their light upon the ancient Biblical language, how much more illumination may be anticipated from any early language of that ancient stock! Delitzsch the younger is illustrating Biblical Hebrew from the resuscitated grammar and lexicology of the ancient Assyrians. On the whole, the present study of Hebrew, especially of its lexicology, is peculiarly hopeful. hitherto bias has been manifest both in grammars and in lexicons, the great task of the present is, utilising knowledge of all kind,-from cognate languages of the past, from cognate languages of the present, from Hebrew philologers both modern and traditional,-to give an infallible insight into the meaning of the Old Testament.

## § 48.

#### BOOKS ON OLD TESTAMENT PHILOLOGY RECOMMENDED.

#### I. For Introductory Study.

#### (1.) Grammars.

Gesenius's Hebrew Grammar, translated from Rödiger's edition by Benjamin Davies, thoroughly revised and enlarged, with the help of Kautzsch's German edition and other recent authorities, by Edward C. Mitchell, 4th copyright edit. 1880, Asher. [A 25th German edit. 1890.]

Davidson, A. B., An Introductory Hebrew Grammar, with Progressive Exercises in Reading and Writing, 13th edit. 1896,

T. & T. Clark.

Introductory Hebrew Grammar, Hebrew Syntax, T. & T. Clark,

1894, 2nd edit. 1896.

HARPER, WM. R., Elements of Hebrew, by an Inductive Method, 7th edit., and Elements of Hebrew Syntax, 1890, Chicago, and David Nutt. [Λ good accompaniment is the same author's Introductory Hebrew Method and Manual, 2nd edit. 1890, Chicago, and David Nutt, a series of lessons in Genesis on an inductive plan.]

# (2.) Lexicon.

Student's Hebrew Lexicon, A Compendious and Complete Hebrew and Chaldee Lexicon to the Old Testament, with an English-Hebrew Index, chiefly founded on the works of Gesenius and Fürst, with improvements from Dietrich and other sources, edited by Benj. Davies, third edition carefully revised by Edward C. Mitchell, Asher, 1880.

## II. For More Advanced Study.

## (1.) Hebrew Grammars.

Note.—Out of the many good Hebrew grammars, the works that follow have been selected because of important bearing upon the study of Hebrew, conveying original investigation and discovery as well as past knowledge.

EWALD, H., Ansführliches Lehrbuch der hebräischen Sprache des Alten Bundes, 1st edit. 1844, 8th edit. 1870, Göttingen. [See § 47.] The syntax, the most important part of the work, has

been translated by James Kennedy under the title Syntax of the Hebrew Language of the Old Testament, by Heinrich Ewald, translated from the eighth German edition, T. & T. Clark, 1879.

Olshausen, Justus, Lehrbuch der hebräischen Sprache, Buch I., Laut- und Schrift-lehre; Buch II., Formen-lehre,—the syntax has

not been written, Brunswick 1861.

Böttcher, Friedrich, Ausführliches Lehrbuch der hebräischen Sprache, edited after Böttcher's death by Mühlau, 2 vols., Leipsic 1866, 1868. [A gigantic work of more than 1300 closely printed pages, giving an analysis of every variation from grammatical rule in the Old Testament.

Stade, Bernhard, Lehrbuch der hebräischen Grammatik, 1st part, Schriftlehre, Lautlehre, Formenlehre, Leipsic 1879. Mediates between Ewald and Olshausen, and presents the exceptional in

Hebrew in a very intelligible form.]

König, F. E., Historisches-kritisches Lehrgebäude der hebräischen Sprache, mit steter Beziehung auf Qimchi und die anderen Auctoritäten, und mit comparativer Beräcksichtigung des Semitischen überhaupt, Erste Hülfte, Lehre von der Schrift, der Aussprache, dem Pronomen und dem Verbum, Leipsic 1881; Zweite Hälfte, Abschluss der speciellen Formenlehre und generelle Formenlehre, 1895. [Lays the Old Hebrew grammarians under contribution, as well as modern writers.

Driver, S. R., A Treatise on the Use of the Tenses in Hebrew, 3rd edit. 1892, Oxford. [A philosophical and lucid presentation of a difficult but most important subject; there are also useful appendices on the use of the Jussive, and on Arabic as illustrative

of Hebrew.

Delitzsch, Frederic, The Hebrew Language Viewed in the Light of Assyrian Research, Williams & Norgate, 1883. [See (4.).]

MÜLLER, Aug., Outlines of Hebrew Syntax, translated and edited by

James Robertson, 3rd edit., Edinburgh 1888.

BÜCHLER, ADOLF, Untersuchungen zur Entstehung und Entwickelung der hebrüischen Accente, Vienna 1891.

## (2.) Hebrew Lexicons.

Buxtorf, J., Lexicon Hebraicum et Chaldaicum, Bâle 1607, best edition 1676. [Useful as a guide to the traditional meanings of

Hebrew words.

Gesenius, Wm., Thesaurus Philologicus Criticus Lingue Hebraec et Chaldwar Veteris Testamenti, editio altera secundum radices digesta priore Germanica longe auction et emendation, Leipsic, 3 vols., 1826-1853, 4to. [The maturest and fullest statement of Gesenius's researches, the last few letters being completed by Rödiger after the author's death.]

— Hebr, und aramiisches Handwörterbuch über das A. T.,

Leipsic, 1st edit. 1815; the 5th to the 7th edits. were edited by Dietrich, the 8th to the 11th (1890) by Mühlau and Volck; the 12th edit. (1894) by Buhl, with appendices by D. H. Müller.

Gesenius's Hebrew and Chaldee Lexicon to the Old Testament Scriptures, translated with additions and corrections from the author's Thesaurus and other works, by S. P. Tregelles, Bagster, 4to. 1846. new edit. 1857.

Robinson, Edward, A Hebrew and English Lexicon of the Old Testament, from the Latin of Wm. Gesenius, with corrections and large additions, partly furnished by the author in MS., and partly condensed from his larger Thesaurus, 3rd edit. Boston 1849, 20th edit. New York 1881.

Fürst, Julius, Hebrüisches und chaldüisches Handwörterbuch über das Alte Testament, mit einer Einleitung eine kurze Geschichte der hebrüischen Lexicographie enthaltend, einem deutschen Index sowie einem grammatischen und analytischen Anhange, bearbeitet von Victor Ryssel, 3rd edit., 2 vols., Leipsic 1876. [Relies more upon the traditional interpretation of Hebrew than Gesenius does.] This work has been translated by Samuel Davidson, 4th edit., Williams & Norgate, 1871.

Delitzsch, Friedrich, Prolegomena eines neuen hebräisch-aramüischen Wörterbuchs zum A. T., Leipsic 1886. [Attempts to utilise Assyrian philology.]

SIEGFRIED, CARL, and BERNHARD STADE, Hebrüisches Wörterbuch zum A. T., Leipsic 1893. [An appendix is a lexidion for the Aramaic passages of the O. T.]

Brown, Francis, with the co-operation of S. R. Driver and Chas. A. Briggs, A Hebrew and English Lexicon of the Old Testament, with an Appendix containing the Biblical Aramaic, based on the Lexicon of William Gesenius, edited with constant reference to the Thesaurus of Gesenius as completed by E. Rödiger, with authorised use of the latest German editions of Gesenius's Handwörterbuch über das Alte Testament, commenced in 1894: five parts now issued, about half of the whole.

## (3.) Hebrew Concordances.

Fürst, Julius, Librorum Sacrorum Veteris Testamenti Concordantice Hebraica atque Chaldaica quibus ad omnia Canonis Sacri vocabula tum hebraica tum chaldaica loci in quibus reperiuntur, etc., Leipsic, folio, 1840, stereotype.

Davidson, B., Englishman's Hebrew and Chablee Concordance of the Old Testament, 3rd edit., 2 vols. 4to, Bagster, 1874.

—— A New Hebrew Concordance, Bagster, 1878, 4to.

Mandelkern, Solomon, Veteris Testamenti Concordantiae Hebraicae atque Chaldaica, fol., Leipsic 1896. [More accurate and complete than Fürst: further, the various passages are quoted according to the Hebrew, and not according to the Vulgate order, as in Fürst.]

Buxtorf, J., Junr., Lexicon Chaldaicum et Syriacum, quo voces omnes tam primitive quam derivative, quotquot in sacrorum Vet. Test, librorum Tarqumim seu Chaldaicis paraphrasibus, etc., Bâle 1622.

Winer, G. B., Grammatik des bibl. und targumischen Chaldaismus,

2nd edit., Leipsic 1842, 3rd edit. 1882.

Renan, Ernest, Histoire Générale et Système Comparé des Langues

Sémitiques, 1st edit., Paris 1855, 5th edit. 1878.

Riggs, Elias, A Manual of the Chaldee Language, containing a Chaldee Grammar, chiefly from the German of G. B. Winer; a Chrestomathy consisting of selections from the Targums, and including notes on the Biblical Chaldee, etc., 4th edit., New York 1858.

Schröder, P., Die phönizische Sprache, Entwurf einer Grammatik

nebst Sprach und Schriftproben, Halle 1869.

Sayce, A. H., An Elementary Grammar, with full syllabary and progressive reading book, of the Assyrian Language in the Cuneiform Type, Bagster, 1875, 4to.

Turpie, D. M., A Manual of Chaldee Language, Williams &

Norgate, 1879.

Levy, Jacob, Neuhebrüisches und chaldüisches Wörterbuch über die Talmudim und Midraschim, 1876-1889, 4 vols. 4to, Leipsic.

Corpus Inscriptionum Semiticarum, Pars Prima Inscriptiones Phœnicias continens, tomus i., Paris, fol., fascic. i. 1881, fascic. ii. 1883, fascic. iii. 1885, fascic. iv. 1887, tomus ii. fascic i. 1890; Pars Secunda Inscriptiones Aramaicas continens, fascic i. 1889; Pars Quarta Inscriptiones Himyariticas et Sabæas continens, fascic. i. 1889, fascic. ii. 1892. [Photographed facsimiles, translations, and notes.]

Brown, Chas. R., An Aramaic Method, a class-book for the study of the elements of Aramaic from Bible and Targums, Chicago 1884: part 1, Text, Notes, and Vocabulary; part 2, Elements of

Grammar.

Kautzsch, E., Grammatik des biblisch-aramäischen, mit einer kritischen Erörterung der aramäischen Wörter im N. T., Leipsic 1884.

Wright, Wm., Lectures on the Comparative Grammar of the Semitic

Languages, Cambridge 1890.

Fürst, Julius, Glossarium Graco-Hebraum oder der griechische Wörterschatz der jüdischen Midraschwerke, ein Beitrag zur Kultur- und Altertumskunde, Strassburg, 1890-91.

Dalman, Gustaf, Grammatik des jüdisch-palästinischen Aramäisch,

Leipsic 1894.

Barth, J., Die Nominalbildung in den semitischen Sprachen, 2nd edit., Leipsic 1894.

Delitzsch, Friedrich, Assyrisches Handwörterbuch, ein unentbehrliches Seitenstuck zu jedem hebräischen Wörterbuch, parts 1 and 2, 4to, Leipsic 1894, 1895.

Strack, Hermann L., Abriss des biblischen Aramüisch, Grammatik nach Handschriften berichtigte Texte, Wörterbuch, Leipsic

1896.

- Porta Linguarum Orientalium sire Elementa Linguarum Hebraica, Phonicia, Biblico-Aramaica, Samaritana, etc.,—studiis academicis accommodata ediderunt J. H. Petermann, H. L. Strack, etc., Berlin.
- Arabisch: Arabische Grammatik, mit Paradigmen, Litteratur, Chrestomathie und Glossar v. A. Socin. Zweite Auflage, 1889.

Arabic Grammar, Paradigms, Literature, Chrestomathy, and Glossary

by A. Socin, 1885.

Delectus veterum carminum arabicorum, carmina selegit et edidit Th. Noeldeke, Glossarium confecit A. Mueller, 1890.

Bibel - Chrestomathie, Arabische herausgegeben und mit einem Glossar versehen von Georg Jacob, 1888.

Arabic Bible-Chrestomathy, with a Glossary edited by George Jacob,

Aethiopisch: Aethiopische Grammatik, mit Paradigmen, Litteratur, Chrestomathie und Glossar von Franz Prátorius, 1886.

Grammatica aethiopica, cum Paradigm., Litteratura, Chrestomathia et Glossario scripsit Franz

Prätorius, 1886.

Hebräisch: Hebräische Grammatik, m. Übungsbuch von H. L. Strack. Vierte, durchges. Aufl., 1891.

Hebrew Grammar, with Read. Book, Exercises, Literat. and Vocab. by H. L. Strack, second enl. ed., 1889.

Grammaire hébraïque, avec Paradigmes, Exercices de lecture, Chrestomathie et Bibliogr. par H. L. Strack, 1886.

Samaritanisch: Grammatica samaritana, Litteratura, Chrestomathia cum Glossario edidit J. H. Petermann.

Aramäisch (Chaldäisch): Grammatica chaldaica, Litteratura, Chresto-

mathia cum Glossario edidit J. H. Petermann. Editio secunda emendata.

Targumisch: Chrestomathia targumica edidit adnotat. critica et glossario instruxit Ad. Merx, 1888.

Syrisch: Syrische Grammatik, mit Litteratur, Chrestomathie und Glossar von Eb. Nestle. Zweite verm. u. verbess. Auflage, 1888.

Syriac Grammar, with Bibliography, Chrestomathy, and Glossary by Eb. Nestle, 1889.

Assyrisch: Assyrische Grammatik, mit Paradigmen, Uebungsstücken, Glossar u. Litteratur von Friedr. Delitzsch, 1889.

Assyrian Grammar, with Paradigms, Chrestomathy, Glossary, and Literature by Friedr. Delitzsch,

1889.

Aegyptisch: Altaegyptische Grammatik, mit Litteratur, Chrestomathie und Glossar von Ad. Erman.

Koptisch: Koptische Grammatik, mit Litteratur, Chrestomathie u. Glossar von G. Steindorff.

Armenisch: Grammatica armeniaca, Litteratura, Chrestomathia cum Glossario edidit J. H. Petermann.

Persisch: Persische Grammatik, mit Paradigmen, Litteratur, Chrestomathie u. Glossar v. C. Salemann u. V. Shukovski, 1889.

Türkisch: Türkische Grammatik, mit Paradigmen, Litteratur, Chresto-mathie u. Glossar. von August

Müller.

Als Ergänzung: Lehrbuch der Neuhebräischen Sprache und Litteratur von H. L. Strack u. C. Siegfried. (Ergänzungsband.) 1884.

# § 49.

#### PROBLEM AND UTILITY OF NEW TESTAMENT PHILOLOGY.

From the original language of the Old Testament we turn to that of the New, some knowledge of which is also an indispensable prerequisite to any scientific interpretation of Scripture. The Greek of the New Testament,—or Hellenistic Greek, as it is called from the fact that Jews living in foreign countries were commonly described not as 'Espaioi, but as Έλληνίσται,—is not pure or classical Greek. An examination of the variations from literary Greek shows them to be resolvable either into variations resulting from the use of the vernacular rather than the literary language, or into variations consequent upon the Hebrew mode of thought and training of the writers. From these two causes arise numerous differences,—in the inflections, which resemble modern more nearly than classical Greek; in the syntax, which follows the Shemitic form of composition by preference to the Hellenic; and in the vocabulary, where many classical words receive wholly different turns of meaning because of Jewish and Christian associations. A word or two on each of these two principal causes of diversity. It is a matter of common observation that dialects are exceedingly numerous in the early stages of a language, every small district having and retaining peculiarities of speech of its own. Such was the case with Greek; for, though its dialects are commonly reckoned as four, we know that these are rather families of dialects, each comprising other local dialects. In course of time, one of these dialects, the Attic, drove the rest from the field of literary composition, and almost all Greeks who wrote books wrote in that dialect. Just as a Scotsman or Somersetshire man talks his own peculiar dialect but writes English, so in ancient times Greek writers wrote everywhere the language of Plato and Demosthenes, although the several dialects held their own. Spoken Greek was no more Attic Greek than spoken English is necessarily the English of the

erudite. Here an interesting fact supervenes. The religious language of Palestine was Hebrew, unknown to the masses and interpreted by a literary class, the Scribes. Now, it would seem that the language of the Septuagint and the New Testament writers was the language of common conversation, of the household and the street. If this were so, then the Septuagint was the first translation made into the vernacular for popular use, and the New Testament writers were the first to appeal to men, not through a literary or dead language, but through the vulgar tongue intelligible to all. But the language of the New Testament is not only vernacular Greek, it is vernacular Greek modified by the religious circumstances of the writers. The religious ideas of the Jewish Law, so alien to the ideas of heathenism, had to be rendered by Greek words of heathen associations, and, naturally enough, the translators of the Septuagint, proceeding on the principle of literal rendering and not paraphrase, the form of the sentences, the turn of the phrases, oftentimes the colour of the words they used, are essentially Hebrew. The same facts are visible in the New Testament, although in a varying degree according to the insularity of the writer. Luke and Paul wrote more nearly the literary language, their syntax and technicalities bearing, notwithstanding, some Hebraic form; whereas writers of a more distinctly Jewish type like Matthew and James differ very widely from the classical forms of speech. From these two causes, provincialism and Hebraism, the variations from classical Greek may be classified at more length somewhat as follows. First, Hellenistic Greek comprehended words and forms from all the dialects without distinction. Secondly, some words which existed in classical Greek received wholly new meanings. Thirdly, Hellenistic Greek adopted into ordinary speech words rare or poetical or oratorical in Attic. Fourthly, many words received new forms or pronunciations. Fifthly, entirely new words and expressions were framed to meet new wants. Sixthly, particular phrases and constructions were borrowed directly from Hebrew. Seventhly, the general characteristics of the Jewish speech were retained in Hellenistic Greek, - the vividness, the circumstantiality, the sameness of expression. Hence the

problem of New Testament philology is to form sufficient acquaintance with the Hellenistic Greek of the New Testament as to be able to transfer with accuracy into English the writings of the New Testament authors, despite their difference from classical Greek and their local colouring. The last words are added advisedly. For to the student of classical Greek, in all its purity and majesty, the meaning of much of the New Testament must be uncertain, and the significance of much more erroneous. All the technicalities of Leviticus might be instanced as they appear in Hellenistic Greek,—a branch of inquiry in which classical associations have caused much undesirable confusion. For example, it is only the classical student who would import into εξιλάομαι or ίλάσκομαι notions about appeasing an angry deity, or into καθαίρειν the idea of washing, whereas in the interpretation of such words the great point is not what they mean in classical Greek, but what Hebrew ideas these words, used of necessity because of the paucity of language, were intended to convey. It would puzzle an Athenian to translate intelligibly  $\Theta v\sigma (a)$ σωτηρίου. Or what would an Athenian make of προσώπου λαμβάνειν, or υίος θανάτου, or ελογίσθη αὐτῷ εἰς δικαιοσύνη? If the last phrase had any meaning to him, it would be, not "reckoned for righteousness," but "argued into almsgiving." Before, therefore, a perfectly just estimate can be gained of the Gospels and Epistles, it is necessary to acquaint oneself to some extent with the language in which they were written, and this argues a familiarisation with Hellenistic rather than classical Greek

§ 50.

HISTORY OF THE STUDY OF HELLENISTIC GREEK.

The vital point just elucidated, viz. the essential difference between the Greek of Plato and of Paul, to take by no means pronounced examples of Hellenistic and Attic Greek, is almost a discovery of this century, a discovery which marks an epoch in the study of New Testament philology. So important is the difference, that the book which first clearly and fully formulated it, the New Testament Grammar of Dr. Winer, divides the history of this branch of philological investigation into two distinct periods.

In the Middle Ages the predominance of the Vulgate crushed out Greek lore as well as Hebrew, and when at the Reformation the original language of the New Testament as well as that of the Old became the subject of enthusiastic research, it was the literary language of Attica which was acquired by exegetes under the conviction that it presented a perfectly adequate key to the Greek of Palestine. That a study of the language of the New Testament was the fundamental condition of all genuine acquaintance with the early records of Christianity was fully understood; it was not understood that familiarity with Attic Greek was no sufficient preparation for studying Hellenistic Greek. Even when recognition was given to New Testament Greek as a distinct philological problem, it was the Hebrew element alone which received scant and yet exaggerated attention. The entire number of works devoted to this branch of learning since the Reformation,—and in earlier times the Vulgate excluded the Greek of the New Testament from the abodes of scholarship,—is remarkable by their fewness. Glass's famous Philologia Sacra paid some heed to New Testament Greek. Again, in 1650, Caspar Wyss wrote his Dialectologia Sacra, in which some scholarly work was done in endeavouring to refer all the peculiarities of the New Testament diction to the specific dialects of Attica, Ionia, Doris, Æolia, Bæotia, as well as to the tendencies of poetic speech and of Hebraising. So, too, the posthumous grammar of Pasor, Grammatica Graca Sacra Novi Test., 1665, did some real service. Then came a long pause in such studies. A hundred and fifty years passed before Haab published his Greek Grammar of the New Testament, in 1815, when the true idea of Hebraisms in the New Testament was ridden to death. Winer's first edition appeared in 1822.

So admirably has this work been thought out and matured that it remains to-day the standard work in its subject. It deals with the entire grammatical range of this branch of philology, with the general character of the New Testament diction, and with the accidence and syntax of Hellenistic Greek. It has been possible to correct and enlarge and abbreviate Winer's Grammar, but not to supersede it. Its influence, too, has been felt in the lexicological branch of the subject, and its root-ideas have moulded all recent study of the words themselves of the New Testament as well as their collocation, as will appear in the books recommended in the next section.

#### § 51.

#### BOOKS RECOMMENDED FOR NEW TESTAMENT PHILOLOGY.

#### I. For Introductory Study.

Green, S. G., Handbook to the Grammar of the Greek Testament, together with a complete Vocabulary, and an examination of the chief New Testament synonyms, illustrated by numerous examples and comments, revised and improved edition, 1886, Religious Tract Society.

Simcox, W. H., The Language of the New Testament. [See Theo-

logical Educator, § 15 (3.).]

HARPER, WM. RAINEY, and R. F. WEIDNER, An Introductory New Testament Greek Method, together with a manual, containing text and vocabulary of Gospel of John and lists of words and the elements of New Testament Greek, Nutt, 1890.

## II. For More Advanced Study.

## (1.) General.

Hatch, Edwin, Essays in Biblical Greek, Oxford 1889. [Contains essays on the value and use of the Septuagint, and on New Testament words and psychological terms.]

Kennedy, H. A. A., Sources of New Testament Greek, or the influence of the Septuagint on the rocabulary of the New Testament,

T. & T. Clark, 1895.

## (2.) Grammatical.

MIDDLETON, T. F., The Doctrine of the Greek Article, applied to the criticism and illustration of the New Testament, new edit. 1855.

Buttmann, A., Grammatik des neutest. Sprachgebrauchs, Berlin 1859, translated as A Grammar of the New Testament Greek by J. H. Thayer, Andover, U.S.A., 1876. Winer, G. B., A Treatise on the Grammar of New Testament Greek, regarded as the basis of New Testament Exegesis, translated from the German, with large additions and full indices by W. F.

Moulton, 1st edit., T. & T. Clark, 1870; 2nd edit. 1877.

Guillemard, W. H., Hebraisms in the Greek Testament, exhibited and illustrated by notes and extracts from the sacred text, with specimens of (1) the influence of the Septuagint on its character and construction, (2) the deviations in it from pure Greek style, Cambridge 1879, Deighton, Bell, & Co. [A reissue of the Greek text of Matthew in full, with notes, originally published in 1875, together with a list of references to Hebraisms, non-classical constructions, and Septuagint parallels.]

Weymouth, R. F., On the Rendering into English of the Greek Aorist and Perfect, with appendices on the New Testament use of

yap and of our, Nutt, 1894.

Burton, Ernest de Witt, Syntax of the Moods and Tenses in New Testament Greek, 2nd edit., T. & T. Clark, 1894.

#### (3.) Lexicons.

Note.—Compare excellent articles by Grimm in the Studien und Kritiken for 1875 and 1877, entitled Kritisch-geschichtliche Uebersicht der neutest. Verballexika seit der Reformation.

Schleusner, J. F., Novum Lexicon Greeco-latinum in Novum Testamentum, after the 4th Leipsic edition, 2 vols., Glasgow 1824.

Schmidt, J. H., Synonymik der griechischen Sprache, 3 vols., Leipsie 1876–1879.

GRIMM, C. L. W., Lexicon Gruco-latinum in Libros Novi Testamenti, editio secunda emendata et aucta, also as C. G. Wilkii Clavis Novi Testamenti Philologica usibus scholarum et juvenum theologica studiosorum accommodata, quem librum secunda atque hac tertia editione ita castigavit et emendavit ut novum opus haberi possit C. L. W. Grimm, Leipsic 1879, 3rd edit. 1888. [Gives the entire Biblical references under the majority of words.] Translated, revised, and enlarged by J. H. Thayer as A Greek-English Lexicon of the New Testament, 4to, T. & T. Clark, 1886; 4th edit. 1895.

Robinson, Ed., A Greek and English Lexicon of the New Testament, a new and improved edition, revised by Alexander Negris and

John Duncan, T. & T. Clark, 1879.

TRENCH, R. C., Synonyms of the New Testament, 9th edit., revised,

Macmillan, 1880.

CREMER, HERMANN, Biblisch-theologisches Wörterbuch der neutestamentlichen Grücität, 7th and much improved edition, Gotha 1892. The second German edition has been translated under the title Biblico-theological Lexicon of the New Testament Greek, 4to, 3rd edit. 1880, T. & T. Clark; supplement, 1886. [Instead of giving every word in the New Testament discusses fully Greek words which have become modified by Christian use.]

## (4.) Concordances to New Testament.

Bruder, C. H., Concordantive Omnium Vocum Novi Testamenti Greeci, 5th edit., Leipsic, 4to, 1880; new edition in 1887, 1888, the 4th stereotyped edition. [Contains 18,000 changes from previous edition.]

Hudson, Chas. F., A Critical Greek and English Concordance of the New Testament, revised and completed by Ezra Abbot, 7th edit.,

Boston, U.S.A., 1882.

## (5.) Concordances to Septuagint.

Trommius, Abr., Concordantive Gracae Versionis vulgo dictae LXX.

Interpretum, etc., 2 vols. fol., Amsterdam 1718.

Hatch, Edwin, and Henry A. Redpath, A Concordance to the Septuagint and the other Greek versions of the Old Testament, including the Apocryphal Books, parts 1–5 published, A–Π, Oxford 1896, and still issuing.

#### BIBLICAL ARCHÆOLOGY.

§ 52.

DEFINITION, PROBLEM, DIVISION, AND HISTORY OF BIBLICAL ARCHÆOLOGY.

Another branch of study introductory to exegesis is Biblical Archæology.

Strictly speaking, archæology is the knowledge of antiquity (ἀρχαιολογία), but the word is often applied not to all knowledge of times long past, but to one branch of that knowledge. In the ordinary English acceptation of the word, an archæologist is a student of the materials from which history is compiled, such as old books, ancient manuscripts, antique customs, and especially monumental remains of buried civilisations. Similarly by Christian Archæology is usually intended investigations into the ecclesiastical architecture and furniture of the earlier Christian centuries. Even the term "Biblical Archæology" is sometimes used in a parallel sense, as when the eminently useful "Society of Biblical Archæology" professes its aim to be to "collect from the fast perishing monuments of the Semitic and cognate races illustrations of

their history and peculiarities." The term Biblical Archæology, however, is usually understood in a wider sense to-day, —as including all the details of the public and private life of the ancient peoples of the Bible, together with their physical conditions,—all those details, in fact, which supply the local colouring indispensable to the historian of the Biblical world if history is to be more than imagination, or otherwise than a retrojected present. By Biblical archæology as now prosecuted is meant something more than the study of monuments left by the ancient peoples of the Bible, and something less than the entire study of Biblical antiquity, including history, doctrine, and biography.

The SOURCES of Biblical archaeology are various, being, first, ancient monuments, coins, and remains; secondly, written records in sacred and profane writers; thirdly, any ancient treatises extant upon archeology or any of its sections; and fourthly, because of the stagnant character of Oriental life, modern travel or research. From all these sources combined THE PROBLEM of Biblical archeology is to obtain all knowledge possible of the physical and social condition of the Biblical nations and peoples, and especially of the Hebrew nation in all the phases of its chequered history. In such a pursuit, Philo and Josephus are ransacked, as well as the books of the Bible, the Mishna as well as the Pentateuch, coins and pyramids, inscriptions, sculptures, and ruins, the illustrations to be found in the works of rabbis or the sacred books of Parsism or Mohammedanism, the whole range of travels in Bible lands from the Arabian itineraries of the seventh century to the Transactions of the Palestine or the Egypt Exploration Funds, and any other source of original information upon Bible lands or Bible peoples.

Hence the several departments of Biblical archeology may be CLASSIFIED as follows:—First, the geography of Bible lands; secondly, the natural history of the Bible; thirdly, the social life of the Bible peoples; fourthly, their political life; fifthly, their religious life; sixthly, the chronology of the Bible.

As to the HISTORY of Biblical archaeology, very little needs be said. It really resolved itself, until very recently, into a history of its several subdivisions. The books which have constituted the study scientific in both range and accuracy are still the leading books on the subject, and will be named in the next section.

## § 53.

#### BOOKS RECOMMENDED ON BIBLICAL ARCHÆOLOGY.

#### I. Introductory.

CONDER, F. R. and C. R., A Handbook to the Bible, being a Guide to the Study of the Holy Scriptures, derived from Ancient Monuments and Modern Exploration, 2nd edit., Longmans, 1880, 12mo. [An excellent handbook, dealing with the chronology of the Bible, its metrology, the Hebrew ritual, government, and social life, and with a description of the Holy Land in its several great epochs.]

Bissell, Edwin Cone, Biblical Antiquities, a handbook for use in seminaries, Sabbath-schools, families, and by all students of the Bible, with numerous illustrations and tables, Philadelphia, U.S.A., 1888. [Deals compactly with the whole range of Domestic,

Civil, and Sacred Antiquities.]

Helps to the Study of the Bible, Oxford; The Cambridge Companion to the Bible; The Queen's Printers' Aids to the Student of the Holy Bible, see § 30 (6.)

## II. For More Advanced Study.

## (1.) Serials.

## Palestine Exploration Fund Publications:—

- 1. The Survey of Western Palestine, 8 vols. 4to, viz.—
- (1) Memoirs of the Topography, Orography, Hydrography, and Archæology, by C. R. Conder and H. H. Kitchener, edited with additions by E. H. Palmer and Walter Besant, 3 vols., 1881-1883.

(2) Arabic and English Name-Lists collected during the survey by Conder and Kitchener, and transliterated and explained by E. H. Palmer,

1881.

(3) Special Papers on Topography, Archæology, Manners and Customs,

- etc., contributed by various writers,
- (4) Jerusalem, by Chas. Warren and Claude Regnier Conder, 1884.

(5) The Fauna and Flora of Palestine,

by H. B. Tristram, 1885.

(6) Physical Geography and Geography of Arabia Petræa, Palestine, and adjoining districts, with special reference to the mode of formation of the Jordan-Arabah depression and the Dead Sea, by Edward Hull,

#### 2. The Survey of Eastern Palestine, viz.-

(1) Memoirs of the Topography, Orography, Hydrography, Archaeology, etc., by C. R. Conder, The Adwan Country, 1889.

(2) The Fauna and Flora of Sinai, Petra, and Wady Arabah, by Henry

Chichester Hart, 1891.

#### 3. Maps, viz .-

(1) Old and New Testament Map of Palestine (embracing both sides of the Jordan, and extending from Baalbek in the north to Kadesh Barnea in the south). Reduced from the Surveys of the Palestine Exploration Fund and other sources. Scale, § of an inch = 1 mile. In twenty sheets and a cover. Showing modern names in black, and all the latest identification of the Old Testament and Apocrypha names in red. The New Testament, Josephus, and the Talmudic names in blue. The tribal possessions tinted in colours.

(2) Modern Map of Palestine (embracing both sides of the Jordan, and extending from Baalbek in the north to Kadesh Barnea in the south). Reduced from the Surveys of the Palestine Exploration Fund and other sources. Scale, § of an inch = 1 mile. With modern names only. In twenty sheets and a cover.

only. In twenty sheets and a cover.
(3) Old and New Testament Map of Palestine. Scale, § of an inch = 1 mile. This 12-sheet map consists of sheets 5-7, 9-11, 13-15, 20-22, which include the whole of Palestine from Mount Hermon in the north to Kadesh Barnea in the south, and the districts beyond Jordan as far as they are surveyed. Showing modern names in black, and all the latest identifications of the Old Testament and Apocrypha names in red. The

New Testament, Josephus, and the

(3) Archæological Researches in Pales-

tine during the years 1873, 1874, by Charles Clermont-Ganneau, trans-

lated by John Macfarlane, 2 vols.,

(4) Modern Map of Palestine in 12 sheets. Scale, § of an inch = 1 mile. This map has only the modern

Talmudic names in blue. The tribal

possessions tinted in colours.

names on it.

(5) The Great Map of Western Palestine, on the scale of one inch to the mile, in twenty-six sheets, with a

portfolio.

1896.

- (6) The Reduced Map of Western Palestine (only), showing WATER BASINS IN COLOUR, AND FIVE VERTICAL SECTIONS, showing the natural profiles of the ground according to the variations of the altitude above or below sea-level. In six sheets and a wrapper. Scale, 23 miles to 1 inch.
- (7) Plan of Jerusalem (reduced from the Ordnance Plan), showing in red the latest discoveries, with separate list of references. Scale, 18 inches = one mile.
- (8) Plan of Jerusalem, according to Josephus. The modern walls of the city, etc., are shown in black. The course of the walls, etc., according to Josephus, with names in red. To this has been added a series of contour lines of every 25 feet.

(9) Raised Map of Palestine, constructed from the Surveys of the Palestine Exploration Fund and other sources, by George Armstrong.

Scale, 3 of an inch to a mile.

4. The Quarterly Statement, a Journal of Palestine Research and Discovery, commenced in 1869, and still issuing.

- The Recovery of Jerusalem, by Sir Charles W. Wilson and Sir Charles Warren, with an Introduction by the late Dean Stanley, 1871.
- 6. Tent Work in Palestine, by C. R.

Conder, 1878; cheaper edition in 1 vol.

7. Heth and Moab, by C. R. Conder, new edit. 1885.

8. Across the Jordan, being a Record of Explorations in the Hauran, by Gottlieb Schumacher, with map, sections, and a hundred and fifty illustrations, 1886. 9. The Survey of the Jaulan, by G. Schumacher, with map, special plans, and a hundred and fifty illustrations.

10. Mount Seir, by E. Hull, 1885.

11. Syrian Stone Lore, by Lieut.-Col. Conder, 1886.

12. Thirty Years' Work, a Memoir of the work of the Society, by Sir Walter Besant.

 Altaic Hieroglyphs and Hittite Inscriptions, by Lieut.-Col. Conder,

1887.

14. Names and Places in the Old and New Testance's and Apocrypha, with references to Josepha, and their Modern Identifications, by George Armstrong, 1888.

George Armstrong, 1888.
15. Pella, by G. Schumacher. A survey of Fahil, the ancient Pella, the first retreat of the Christians; with map and illustrations, 1888.

 The History of Jerusalem, by Walter Besant and E. H. Palmer,

1888.

17. The Bible and Modern Discoveries, by Henry A. Harper. With map, index, and illustrations, in one vol., 1888; new edit. (fifth), revised, with map, illustrations, and index, 1891.

18. Palestine under the Moslems, by Guy le Strange. With map, illustrations, and index, in one vol., 1890.

19. 'Ajlun "Within the Decapolis," by Gottlieb Schumacher, 1888.

20. Lachish (one of the five strong-holds of the Amorites), an account of the excavations, with view of Tell el Hesy, plans, and section, and

upwards of 270 drawings of the objects found, by W. M. Flinders Petrie, 1891.

21. The City and the Land, with plan of Jerusalem according to Josephus. A series of seven lectures on (1) Ancient Jerusalem; (2) The Future of Palestine; (3) Natural History of Palestine; (4) The General Work of the Fund; (5) The Hittites; (6) Tell el Hesy (Lachish); (7) The Modern Traveller in Palestine: by (1) Sir Charles Wilson; (2) Major Conder; (3) Canon Tristram; (4) Walter Besant; (5) William Wright; (6) Flinders Petrie; and (7) Canon Dalton, 1893; 2nd edit. 1894.

22. The Tell Amarna Tablets, including the one found at Lachish. Translated from the Cuneiform Characters by C. R. Conder. The letters, numbering 176, are from Palestine and Syria, were written about 1480 B.C. by Amorites, Phoenicians, Philistines, etc., to the King of Egypt, to generals and other officials, and include those from Jabin, king of Hazor, Adonizedek, king of Jerusalem, and Japhia, king of Gezer, contemporaries of Joshua, referring to the Hebrew Conquest, and naming 130 towns and countries, 1894.

23. A Mound of Many Cities (Tell el Hesy excavated), by F. J. Bliss, with upwards of 250 illustrations, 1894.

24. Judas Maccabæus and the Jewish War of Independence, a new and revised edition by Major Conder 1894; 1st edit. 1879.

Publications of the Palestine Pilgrims' Text Society. [Another branch of work originated by the Palestine Exploration Fund, in order to translate and edit topographical references in ancient and mediæval literature, from the earliest times to the period of the Crusades or later: many of the volumes are annotated by Sir C. W. Wilson and by Professor Hayter Lewis.]

## The following Works have been issued:-

1. The Holy Places Visited by Antoninus Martyr (560 - 570 A.D.), translated by Aubrey Stewart.

2. The Pilgrimage of Holy Paula by St. Jerome, translated by Aubrey Stewart, illustrated with a map.

3. The Buildings of Justinian by Procopius (560 A.D.), translated by Aubrey Stewart, illustrated with a map and fourteen plans.

4. Description of Syria, including Palestine, by Mukaddasi (985 A.D.), translated from the Arabic and annotated by Guy le Strange, illustrated with a map and five plans,

trated with a map and five plans.

5. "The Bordeaux Pilgrim" (itinerary from Bordeaux to Jerusalem, 333 A.D.), translated by Aubrey Stewart, illustrated with a map.

6. The Pilgrimage of the Russian Abbot Daniel (1106-1107 A.D.), illustrated with three plans.

7. A Crusader's Letter from "the Holy Land." Letter from Sir Joseph de Cancy, Knight of the Hospital of St. John of Jerusalem, to King Edward I. (1281), and Letter from King Edward I. to Sir Joseph (1282). Communicated to the Palestine Pilgrims' Text Society by W. B. Sanders, Esq.

The City of Jerusalem, and Ernoul's Account of Palestine, translated from the Old French, with notes by Major Conder. Illustrated

with two maps.

 Diary of a Journey through Syria and Palestine by Nasir i Khusrau (1047), translated from the Persian and annotated by Guy le Strange, illustrated with a map and five plans.

 The Pilgrimage of Arculfus in the Holy Land (about the year 670 A.D.), translated and annotated by James Rose Macpherson, illustrated

with two plans.

11. The Pilgrimage of Johannes Phocas in the Holy Land (1185 A.D.), translated by Aubrey Stewart.

 The Letter of Paula and Eustochium to Marcella about the Holy Places (386 A.D.), translated by Aubrey Stewart.

13. The Epitome of S. Eucherius about certain Holy Places (440 A.D.), and the Breviury or Short Description of Jerusalem (530 A.D.), translated by Aubrey Stewart.

14. Description of the Holy Land by John of Würzburg (1160-1170), translated by Aubrey Stewart, illustrated with a plan of Jerusalem.

15. The Churches of Constantine at Jerusalem, translated from Eusebius and the Early Pilgrims by John H. Bernard.  The Pilgrimage of S. Silvia of Aquitania to the Holy Places (385 A.D.), translated with an introduction and notes by J. H. Bernard.

17. Theoderich's Description of the Holy Places (1172), translated by Aubrey Stewart, with map and

illustrations.

18. The Hodeporison of St. Willibald (754 A.D.), translated by Canon Brownlow. With two maps.

Brownlow. With two maps.

19. Fetellus' Description of Jerusalem and the Holy Land (1130 A.D.), translated with an introduction and notes by James Rose Macpherson.

20. Felix Fabri, the Wanderings of (1484 A.D.), vol. i. parts 1 and 2; vol. ii. part 1, translated by

Aubrey Stewart.

21. Saewulf's Pilgrimage to Jerusalem and the Holy Land (1102, 1103 A.D.), with a copy of the original text, translated by Canon Brownlow, with route map and two plans.

22. Theodosius on the Topography of the Holy Land (530 A.D.), translated

by J. H. Bernard.

23. The Itinerary of Bernard the Wise (870 A.D.), How the City of Jerusalem is Situated (cir. 1090 A.D.), translated by J. H. Bernard.

24. The Anonymous Pilgrims (11th and 12th centuries A.D.), translated

by Aubrey Stewart.

 John Poloner's Description of the Hoty Land (circa 1421 A.D.), translated from Tobler's Text by Aubrey Stewart.

26. Guide-Book to Palestine (circa 1350 A.D.), translated by John H.

Bernard

 Ludolph von Suchem's Description of the Holy Land (written in the year A.D. 1350), translated from the Latin by Aubrey Stewart.

28. Extracts from Various Early Writers, illustrating topographical details of Jerusalem and the Holy Land, viz.: Aristeas, Hecataeus, Origen, Cyril, The Patriarch Sophronius, St. Saba, The Paschal Chronicle, The Chronicle of Theophanes, and Eutychii Annales, translated from the original Latin by Aubrey Stewart.

Transactions of the Society of Biblical Archwology, vols. i.—ix., 1872—1893; also, Proceedings of the Society of Biblical Archwology, commenced in 1880, and still issuing. [The objects of this

Society are to investigate the archæology, chronology, geography, and history of Ancient and Modern Assyria, Arabia, Egypt, Palestine, and other Biblical Lands, the promotion of the study of the antiquities of those countries, and the preservation of a continuous record of discoveries.

Ancient History from the Monuments, Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, 12mo, 1878, etc. [Illustrate the Bible by the results

of recent monumental researches.

Assyria, from the Earliest Times to the Fall of Nineveh, by the late George Smith, of the British Museum; new and revised edit. by A. H. Sayce, 11th thousand, 1890.

Sinai: from the Fourth Egyptian Dynasty to the Present Day, by the late Henry S. Palmer, with map; new edit. revised by A. H. Sayce,

1892.

Babylonia (The History of), by the

late George Smith, edited by A. H. Sayce, 1888.

Greek Cities and Islands of Asia Minor, by the late W. S. W. Vaux, M.A., 1877.

Egypt from the Earliest Times to B.C. 300, by the late S. Birch, LL.D.,

10th thousand, 1890.

Persia from the Earliest Period to the Arab Conquest, by the late W. S. W. Vaux, M.A., 1884.

#### Egypt Exploration Fund Publications:—

1. The Store-City of Pithom and the Route of the Exodus, by Edouard Naville, with 13 plates and 2 maps, 1885, 3rd edit. 1888, 4to. 2. *Tanis*, part 1, by W. M. Flinders

Petrie, with 16 plates and plans, 1885, 2nd edit. 1888, 4to.

3. Naukratis, part 1, by W. M. Flinders Petrie, etc., with 44 plates and 7 plans, 1886, 2nd edit. 1888,

4. Goshen, and the Shrine of Saft-el-Henneh, by Ed. Naville, with 11 plates and plans, 1st and 2nd edits. 1888, 4to.

5. Tanis, part 2, Nebesheh (Am) and Defenneh (Tahpanhes), by W. M. Petrie, etc., with 51 plates and plans, 1888, 4to.

6. Naukratis, part 2, by E. A. Gardner, with 24 plates and plans, 1889, 4to.

7. The City of Onias, and the Mound of the Jew, the Antiquities of Tell el Yahudiyeh, by Ed. Naville and F. Ll. Griffith, with 26 plates and plans, 1890, 4to.

8. Bubastis, by Ed. Naville, with 54 plates and plans, 1890, 4to.

9. Two Hieroglyphic Papyri from

Tanis, translated by F. Ll. Griffith and W. M. Flinders Petrie, with 15 plates, 1889, 4to.

10. The Festival Hall of Osorkon II. in the Great Temple of Bubastis, by Ed. Naville, with 39 plates, 1891, 4to.

11. Ahnas El Medineh, by Ed.
Naville, and The Tomb of Paheri
at El Kab, by J. J. Tylor and F.
Ll. Griffith, 1892, 4to.
12. Deir el Bahari, by Ed. Naville,

with 15 plates and plans, 1894, 4to.

13. Publications of the Archaeological Survey of Egypt, edited by F. Ll. Griffith: 1st Memoir, Beni Hassan, part 1, 1892; 2nd Memoir, Beni Hassan, part 2, 1893; 3rd Memoir, El Bersheh, part 1, 1895; all 4to, and still continuing.

14. An Atlas of Ancient Egypt, with complete index, geographical and historical notes, Biblical references, etc., 2nd edit. revised, 1894. [Exhibits the latest identifications of sites, and especially the geographical discoveries of the Society.]

15. NAVILLE, ED., The Temple of Deir el Bahari, part 1, plates 1-24, the North-Western End of the

Upper Platform, 1896, folio.

The Babylonian and Oriental Record: a monthly Magazine of the Antiquities of the East; editorial committee, T. de Lacouperie, Theod. G. Pinches, and Wm. C. Capper, commenced in 1886, and still continuing, Nutt.

## (2.) On Biblical Archaeology in general.

Ugolino, Thesaurus Antiquitatum Sacrorum, 34 vols. fol., Venice 1744-1769. [A collection of the select works of the most

famous students of Biblical antiquities.]

EWALD, H., Die Alterthümer des Volkes Israel, 3rd edit., Göttingen 1866, 1st edit. 1844; translated under the title of The Antiquities of Israel, Longmans, 1876. [On Biblical archæology in general; original in treatment, and worth reading side by side with Keil.]

Saalschütz, J. L., Archäologie der Hebräer für Freunde des Alterthums und zum Gebrauche bei akademischen Vorlesungen,

2 parts, Königsberg 1855–56.

Rule, Wm. Harris, and J. C. Anderson, *Biblical Monuments*, Croydon, 1871-73, 4to. [Photographs and descriptions of the principal monuments in stone and manuscript from the deluge

tablet to Wycliffe's translation.

Keil, C. F., Handbuch der biblischen Archäologie, 2 vols., Frankfort, 1st edit. 1858, 2nd, 1875; vol. i. translated (chiefly) by Peter Christie as Manual of Biblical Archaeology, with alterations and additions furnished by the author for the English translation, and edited by Frederick Crombie, 1887, and vol. ii. translated and edited by Alex. Cusin, 1888, T. & T. Clark.

Fillion, L. Cl., Atlas Archéologique de la Bible, d'après les meilleurs documents, soit anciens, soit modernes, et surtout d'après les découvertes les plus récentes faites dans la Palestine, la Syrie, la Phénicie, l'Egypte, et l'Assyrie, destiné à faciliter l'intelligence des Saintes Ecritures, Lyons 1883, 4to. [A collection of 39 plates, each with many illustrations and brief descriptions.]

— Aftas d'Histoire Naturelle de la Bible d'après les monuments anciens et les meilleures sources modernes et contemporaines, Lyons 1884, 4to. [112 plates, with brief descriptions: Roman Catholic.]

— et H. Nicole, Atlas Géographique de la Bible d'après les documents anciens et les meilleures sources françaises, anglaises et allemandes contemporaines, Paris 1890, 4to.

Schegg, Peter, Biblische Archäologie, 1887. [See Theologische

 $Bibliothek, \S 15 (3.).$ 

Benzinger, J., Hebrüische Archäologie, 1894. [See Grundriss der theologischen Wissenschaften, § 15 (3.).]

## (3.) On the Geography of the Bible.

RITTER, K., Erdkunde der Sinai-Halbinsel, von Palästina und Syrien, 4 vols. in 6, Berlin, 1850-55, translated by Gage under the title of Comparative Geography of Palestine and the Sinaitic Peninsula, 4 vols., T. & T. Clark, 1866.

Robinson, Ed., Biblical Researches in Palestine and in the adjacent Regions, a Journal of Travels in the year 1838, 2 vols., 2nd edit., Boston 1860; also, Later Biblical Researches in Palestine and in the adjacent Regions, a Journal of Travels in the year 1852,

2 vols., 2nd edit., Boston 1857.

Thomson, W. M., The Land and the Book, or Biblical Illustrations drawn from the Manners and Customs, the Scenes and Scenery of the Holy Land, 2 vols., New York 1859, also Nelson, London, new edition in 3 vols., 1880-85. [Beautifully illustrated, and invaluable for its illustration of Scripture, the narrative of a missionary long resident in Palestine.]

Whitney, G. H., The Handbook of Bible Geography, containing a descriptive and historical account of every place, nation, and tribe mentioned in the Bible and Apocrypha, alphabetically arranged and illustrated by nearly 100 engravings and 40 maps and plans,

Hodder, 1872.

Tobler, Titus, Bibliographia Geographica Palastina, Leipsic 1867–1875. [Shows very large research in bibliography.]

--- Descriptiones Terrae Sanctae ex saculo viii., ix., xii., and xv.,

Leipsic 1874.

Stanley, A. P., Sinai and Palestine in connection with their History, new edit., with maps and plans, Murray, 1866, 3rd edit. 1883. [Helpful in giving local colour to Biblical descriptions, and because of its massing around each sacred spot the associations of the Bible and of profane history.]

PORTER, J. L., The Giant Cities of Bashan and Syria's Holy Places,

Nelson, 1866.

Palmer, E. H., The Desert of the Exodus, Journeys on Foot in the Wilderness of the Forty Years' Wandering, undertaken in connection with the Ordnance Survey of Sinai and the Palestine Exploration Fund, with maps and numerous illustrations from photographs and drawings taken on the spot, 2 vols., Deighton, Bell, & Co., 1871.

Warren, Chas., Underground Jerusalem, an Account of some of the principal Difficulties encountered in the Exploration, and the Results obtained, with a Narrative of an Expedition through the Jordan Vallen, and a Visit to the Samaritans, Bentley, 1876.

Tristram, H. B., The Topography of the Holy Land, a succinct account of all the places, rivers, and mountains of the land of Israel mentioned in the Bible, so far as they have been identified, together with their modern names and historical references, Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, 12mo, 1876.

Guérin, Victor, La Terre Sainte, son Histoire, ses Sourenirs, ses Sites, ses Monuments, vol. i., Paris, folio, 1882; vol. ii., Paris, folio, 1884,—Liban, Phénicie, Pétra, Sinai, Egypte. [Richly illustrated, containing the narrative of personal travel and research.]

Trumbull, H. C., Kadesh-Barnea, its Importance and Probable Site with the Story of a Hunt for it, including Studies of the Route of the Exodus, and the Southern Boundary of the Holy Land, New York 1884.

Henderson, Archibald, Palestine, its Historical Geography, with topographical index and maps, T. & T. Clark, 1884. [See Handbooks for Bible Classes, § 15 (3.).]

RAWLINSON, GEO., Biblical Topography, 12mo, Nisbet, 1887.

MERRILL, Selah, East of the Jordan, a record of travel and observation in the countries of Moab, Gilead, and Bashan, 70 illustrations and a map, Bentley, 1881.

Röhricht, R., Chronologisches Verzeichniss der auf die Geographie des heiligen Landes bezüglichen Literatur von 333 bis 1878 und Versuch einer Cartographie, Berlin 1890. [The best bibliography.]

SMITH, GEO. ADAM, The Historical Geography of the Holy Land, especially in relation to the History of Israel and of the Early Church, with six maps, Hodder, 1894, 3rd edit. 1895. [Written after (1) a personal acquaintance with Palestine, (2) a study of the exploration, discoveries, and decipherments, especially of recent years, and (3) a study of the results of recent Biblical criticism.]

Ramsay, W. M., The Cities and Bishoprics of Phrygia, being an essay of the local history of Phrygia from the earliest times to the Turkish Conquest, vol. i., The Lycos Valley and South-Western

Phrygia, Oxford 1895.

SAYCE, A. H., Patriarchal Palestine, with a map, S.P.C.K., 1895. [Embodies results of discovery and decipherment of the monuments of Babylonia, Assyria, Egypt, and Palestine.]

# (4.) On the Natural History of the Bible.

Tristram, H. B., The Natural History of the Bible, being a Review of the Physical Geography, Geology, and Meteorology of the Holy Land, with a description of every animal and plant mentioned in Holy Scripture, Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, 1st

edit. 1867, 2nd edit. revised and corrected, 1868.

Duns, John, Biblical Natural Science, being the explanation of all references in Holy Scripture to Geology, Botany, Zoology, and Physical Geography, illustrated by maps and numerous woodcuts, 2 vols. 4to, Mackenzie, no date. [Follows the order of the books of the Bible, dealing with each natural fact as it arises.]

Palestine Exploration Fund, Fauna and Flora, see (1.).

Fillion, Atlas, see (2.).

## (5.) On the Social Life of the Bible.

Wilkinson's Manners and Customs of Egyptians, see § 26, Egypt.

Lane, E. W., An Account of the Manners and Customs of the Modern Egyptians, written in Egypt during the years 1833, 1834, and 1835, partly from notes made during a former visit to that country in the years 1825–1828, 5th edit., with numerous additions and improvements, from a copy annotated by the author, edited by

his nephew, Edward Stanley Poole, 2 vols. 12mo, Murray, 1871. [Useful because of the similarity of Oriental life in the past and in the present.]

THOMSON, W. M., see (3.).

Van Lenner, H. J., Bible Lands: their Modern Customs and Manners illustrative of Scripture, New York 1875.

Stainer, J., The Music of the Bible, with an account of the development of modern musical instruments from ancient types, Novello, 12mo, 1879.

TRISTRAM, H. B., Eastern Customs in Bible Lands, 2nd edit.,

Hodder, 1894.

Trumbull, H. Clay, Studies in Oriental Social Life and Gleams from the East on the Sacred Page, Hodder, 1895. [Embodies lectures delivered before the Archæological Association of the University of Pennsylvania and repeated before the Semitic Club of Yale University.]

## (6.) On the Political Life of the Bible.

MICHAELIS, J. D., Commentaries on the Laws of Moses, translated from the German by Alexander Smith, 4 vols., 1814. [Still the best book on the legislation of Moses as a whole.]

Madden, F. W., Coins of the Jews, with 279 woodcuts and a plate of alphabets, Trübner, 1881, 4to. [The best book on Jewish

numismatology.]

## (7.) On the Religious Life of the Bible.

Note.—Tolerably complete surveys of the literature of this subject will be found in the author's Scriptural Doctrine of Sacrifice, T. & T. Clark, 1877, 2nd edit. 1890. A few additional monographs are given here.

Fergusson, J., The Temple from Solomon to Saladin, Murray, 1877. Atwater, E., History and Significance of the Sacred Tabernacle of the Hebrews, New York 1877.

Spiess, F., Der Tempel zu Jerusalem wührend des letzten Jahrhunderts seines Bestandes nach Josephus, Berlin 1880. [A careful descrip-

tion of the Herodian temple gathered from Josephus.]

Pailloux, Xavier, Monographie du Temple de Solomon, Paris, folio, 1885. [A monument of research—carefully illustrated with plates—into the structure of the temple of Solomon as it is described in Kings and Chronicles, with equally careful descriptions of the temple of Ezekiel, the Second Temple, and the temple of Herod: of considerable value in questions of higher criticism.]

Perrot, Geo., and Charles Chipiez, Histoire de l'Art dans l'Antiquité, tome iv., Judée, etc., Paris, 4to, 1887. [Studies architecturally, with many illustrations, the temples of Solomon

and Ezekiel.]

Paine, Timothy Otis, Solomon's Temple and Capitol, Ark of the Flood and Tabernacle, or the Holy Houses of the Hebrew, Chaldee, Syriac, Samaritan, Septuagint, Coptic and Italic Scriptures, Josephus, Talmul, and Rabbis, with 42 full-page plates, and 120 woodcuts, square folio, 1886.

Sulley, Henry, The Temple of Exchiel's Prophecy, or an exhibition of the nature, character, and extent of the building represented in

the last nine chapters of Ezekiel, with plates, 1887.

Chipiez, Charles, and Georges Perrot, Le Temple de Jérusalem et la Maison du Bois-Liban restitués d'après Ezéchiel et le Livre des Rois, Paris, large folio, 1889. [Remarkable drawings.]

## (8.) On the Chronology of the Bible.

Scaliger, J. J., De Emendatione Temporum, Paris, folio, 1583; enlarged edit., Leyden 1598, Geneva 1629. [The foundation of

the modern science of chronology.]

Ussher, Jas., Annales Veteris et Novi Testamenti a prima mundi origine deducti una cum rerum Asiaticarum et Ægypticarum chronico a temporis historici principio, 1st edit. folio, 1650–1654, reprinted in vols. x. and xi. of collected works, Dublin, 8vo, 1847, etc.; also compare his posthumous Chronologia Sacra in vols. xi. and xii. of collected works. [The dates of this work somehow head the pages of the Authorised Version.]

Vignolles, Alphonse de, Chronologie de l'histoire sainte, et des histoires étrangères qui la concernent, depuis la sortie d'Egypte jusqu'à la captivité de Babylone, 2 vols. 4to, Berlin 1738. [In six books full of curious researches which afford precise data for

the chronology of the Old Testament.]

Jackson, John, Chronological Antiquities, or the Antiquities and Chronology of the most Ancient Kingdoms, from the Creation of the World, for the space of five thousand years, 3 vols. 4to, 1752. [The 1st vol. deals with the chronological antiquities of the Old

Testament.

Hales, Wh., A New Analysis of Chronology and Geography, History and Prophecy; in which their elements are attempted to be explained, harmonised, and vindicated upon Scriptural and scientific principles, tending to remove the imperfection and discordance of preceding systems, and to obviate the cavils of sceptics, Jews, and infidels, 2nd edit. corrected and improved, 4 vols., 1830. [After giving the elements of technical and historical chronology, strives to analyse the sacred chronology from the creation to the beginning of the kingdom of God in heaven.]

Wieseler, K., Chronologische Synopse der Evangelien, Hamburg 1843, translated under the title A Chronological Synopsis of the Four Gospels, Bell & Daldy, 1864. [Not wholly superseded by

Caspari.

- Lewin, Thos., Fasti Sacri, or a Key to the Chronology of the New Testament, comprising an historical harmony of the Four Gospels, and chronological tables generally from B.C. 70 to A.D. 70; with a preliminary dissertation on the chronology of the New Testament, and other aids to the elucidation of the subject, 8vo, Longmans,
- Andrews, S. J., The Bible Student's Life of our Lord, in its historical, chronological, and geographical relations, 12mo, Strahan, 1867. A new edition, carefully revised, was published in 1892, T. & T. Clark, under the title The Life of our Lord upon the Earth, considered in its historical, chronological, and geographical relations. [Summarises present knowledge, the entire life being arranged by day and year.]

Caspari, C. E., Chronologisch-geographische Einleitung in das Leben Jesu, Hamburg 1869, translated by M. J. Evans under the title of A Chronological and Geographical Introduction to the Life of

Christ, T. & T. Clark, 1876.

SMITH, GEO., The Assyrian Eponym Canon, containing translations of the documents, and an account of the evidence, on the comparative chronology of the Assyrian and Jewish kingdoms, from the death of Solomon to Nebuchadnezzar, Bagster, 1875. [Shows the light thrown by cuneiform inscriptions upon early chronology; quotes more than 300 Assyrian documents.]

Raska, J., Die Chronologie der Bibel im Einklange mit der Zeitrechnung der Ægypter und Assyrier, 1878. [Maintains the authority of the Biblical dates, and appends a valuable synchronistical table of the kings of Judah, Israel, Assyria, and Egypt

according to Ptolemy's canon.]

Schäfer, Aloys, Die biblische Chronologie vom Auszuge aus Ægypten bis zum Beginne des babylonischen Exil's mit Berücksichtigung der Resultate der Ægyptologie und Assyriologie, Münster 1879. [Endeavours to synchronise the Biblical,

Egyptian, and Assyrian chronologies.

Floigl, V., Die Chronologie der Bibel des Manetho und Beros, Leipsic 1880. [Holds that the controversy concerning the Biblical and Assyrian chronologies will only be solved when the correct interpretation of the cuneiform texts is shown to agree with the statements of Berosus, Menander, and Manetho.

Dumax, V., Revision et Reconstitution de la Chronologie Biblique et Profane des premiers ages du monde d'après les découvertes de la science moderne et le savant système de M. Chevallier, 3 parts,

12mo, Paris 1886.

Carbon, A., Etude sur la Chronologie Biblique, Paris 1887.

Examines fully the Biblical data.

Mahler, Ed., Biblische Chronologie und Zeitrechnung der Hebrüer, 1887, Vienna. [Has tables for transforming the Jewish Calendar into Days of the Julian Period, and conversely.]

Niebuhr, Carl, Die Chronologie der Geschichte Israels, Ægyptens, Babyloniens und Assyriens von 2000-700 v. Chr., Leipsic 1896. Alker, E., Die vortrojanische ügyptische Chronologie im Einklang mit der biblischen, Leobschütz, 1896. [With appendices on (1) Typhon and Nuter Set, (2) Joseph in Egypt, (3) Chronology of the Time of the Judges.]

#### BIBLICAL LITERARY CRITICISM.

§ 54.

DEFINITION, PROBLEM, DIVISION, AND HISTORY OF BIBLICAL LITERARY CRITICISM.

Another science which results from attending to an important series of Biblical data, and a series which it is desirable to treat separately, is Biblical Literary Criticism, as the science is called for want of a better name. This literary criticism of the Bible must not be confounded with its textual criticism. Biblical Literary Criticism is more nearly allied to Biblical Canonics, the latter dealing with the external evidence for the various books of Scripture, whereas the former deals with the internal evidence. In other words, Biblical Literary Criticism tests by internal evidence the truth as to the Biblical statements concerning the authorship and contents of the several books of the Bible. To this literary examination of the Biblical books the name of the "higher criticism" is frequently applied, the criticism of the text of Scripture being designated the "lower criticism."

The science, then, of Biblical literary criticism, which endeavours to criticise the language and statements of Scripture by those statements and language, has a difficult but important PROBLEM to solve. Comparison, subtle and extended, is the very essence of literary criticism, and by all means of comparison,—by contrasting word with word and statement with statement, by confronting the implications of a statement in one place with the implications of a statement in another, by disclosing all the deeper harmonies of truth, and penetrating the less superficial contradictions of error,

by applying everywhere the well-known canon that veracity and inconsistency are incompatible,—Biblical literary criticism aims at declaring the reliableness or unreliableness of Scripture. Scripture is put into the witness-box and severely questioned and cross-questioned with a view to testing its bona fides. Dealing with the books of the Bible individually, Biblical literary criticism strives to ascertain from the evidence of the books themselves critically regarded, whether they are genuine, as the technical term runs, that is, whether they were written by the persons whose names they bear and at the time when they profess to have been written. A deliverance upon the date, authorship, and method of composition of each book of Scripture is the goal of the science; criticism is its method.

Strictly speaking, the DIVISION of the science would arrange itself according to the several books of Scripture. At present, however, by no means the same minuteness of criticism has been brought to bear upon all the books of Scripture. The fiercest warfare hitherto has raged around the Pentateuch, Isaiah, Daniel, Zechariah, the Gospels, the Acts, the Pauline Epistles, the Epistle to the Hebrews, and the Revelation. Some examination, however, has necessarily been given to each of the books of the Bible in works dealing with what we have called special introduction, and in commentaries.

To write a HISTORY of the contributions made throughout the course of the Christian Church to Biblical literary criticism would involve a treatment disproportionate to the plan of this book. The three great epochs in the history of our science were, however, first, the years of rationalism, which concentrated its fire upon the supernatural assertions of law and gospel; secondly, the criticism of Strauss, which turned its guns mainly upon the Gospels; and thirdly, a further influence of Hegel, seen in the attacks of the so-called Tübingen school, who endeavoured to explain all the phenomena of the New Testament according to a principle of natural development. More recent controversy has been very largely concerned with the Pentateuch, its date and authorship.

# § 55.

#### BOOKS RECOMMENDED ON BIBLICAL LITERARY CRITICISM.

## I. Introductory.

RISHELL, C. W., The Higher Criticism, an Outline of Modern Biblical Study, Cincinnati 1893. [Part i., Introductory Discussion; part ii., The Old Testament, each book dealt with separately; part iii., The New Testament, each book separately dealt with; part iv., estimate of results; part v., consequences.]
WRIGHT, CHAS. H. H., and B. WEISS, see § 33 I.

## II. For More Advanced Study.

Note.—We only deal here with the questions concerning the Pentateuch and the Gospels, a separate literature having sprung up around each of these centres. For various views as to the authorship of the other historical, prophetical, and apostolic books, the student should refer to works on Introduction named in §§ 33 and 61, and to the prefatory sections of the commentaries named in § 61.

# (1.) On the Pentateuch Question (including Joshua).

Note.—Good historical surveys of the course of opinion upon the authorship and authenticity of the Pentateuch, from different standpoints, will be found in Knobel's Kritik des Pentateuch und Josua, an appendix to his Die Bücher Numeri, Deuteronomium und Josua erklürt, the 13th part of the Kurzgefasses exegetisches Hendbuch zum Alten Testament, Leipsic 1861, 2nd edit. 1886; in Wellhausen's edition of Bleek's Einleitung in das Alte Testament, §§ 32–34 and 81–87, Berlin 1878 (the history after Bleek's death being carried on by Kuenen and Wellhausen); in Keil's Introduction, §§ 36–39; and in Holzinger's Einleitung in den Hexateuch, Freiburg 1893.

Macdonald, Donald, Introduction to the Pentateuch, an Inquiry, Critical and Doctrinal, into the Genuineness, Authority, and Design of the Mosaic Writings, 2 vols., T. & T. Clark, 1861.

Colenso, J. W., The Pentateuch and Book of Joshua Critically Examined, 7 parts, 1862–79, Longmans. [Part i., The Pentateuch examined as a historical narrative; part ii., Age and Authorship of Pentateuch considered; part iii., Deuteronomy; part iv., First Eleven Chapters of Genesis; part v., Genesis Analysed and Separated, and the Ages of its Writers determined; part vi., Later Legislation of the Pentateuch; part vii., Pentateuch and Book of Joshua compared with the other Hebrew Scriptures.]

Graves, R., Lectures on the Four Last Books of the Pentateuch, designed to show the Divine Origin of the Jewish Religion, chiefly from Internal Evidence, in three parts,—(1) The Authenticity and

Truth of the History; (2) The Theological, Moral, and Political Principles of the Jewish Law; (3) Review of the Effects of Judaism as Preparatory to Christianity, 10th edit., Bohn, 1865.

Quarry, John, Genesis and its Authorship; Two Dissertations,—(1) On the Import of the Introductory Chapters of the Book of Genesis; (2) On the Use of the Names of God in the Book of Genesis, and on the Unity of its Authorship, Williams & Norgate, 1866.

Kuenen, A., The Religion of Israel to the Fall of the Jewish State, translated from the Dutch by Alfred Heath May, 3 vols., Williams

& Norgate, 1874-75.

— Historico-Critical Inquiry into the Origin and Composition of the Hexateuch, translated from the Dutch by Philip H. Wicksteed, Macmillan, 1886.

Curtiss, S. I., The Levitical Priests, a Contribution to the Criticism

of the Pentateuch, T. & T. Clark, 1877, 12mo.

Deuteronomy, The People's Book, its Origin and Nature, a Defence,

Daldy, Isbister, 1877, 12mo.

- Wellhausen, J., Prolegomena zur Geschichte Israels, vol. i., Berlin 1878, 2nd edit. 1883, translated and edited by W. Robertson Smith under the title of The History of Israel, Edinburgh 1885, 4th German edit. 1895.
- Die Composition des Hexateuchs, Berlin 1885, being part ii. of his Skizzen und Vorarbeiten. [A reprint of his famous articles of 1876.]
- Reuss, É., L'Histoire Sainte et la Loi, Introduction, Paris 1879, part of his La Bible,—see § 61 (1.): compare Die heilige Geschichte und das Gesetz, Einleitung, pp. 5–189, Brunswick 1893, the 3rd vol. of Das alte Testament übersetzt, eingeleitet und erläutert.

Bredenkamp, C. J., Gesetz und Propheten, ein Beitrag zur alttesta-

mentlichen Kritik, Erlangen 1881.

- SMITH, W. ROBERTSON, The Old Testament in the Jewish Church, Twelve Lectures on Biblical Criticism, Edinburgh 1881, 3rd edit. 1895.
- Watts, Robert, The Newer Criticism and the Analogy of the Faith, a Reply to Lectures by W. Robertson Smith on the Old Testament in the Jewish Church, T. & T. Clark, 1881, 3rd edit. 1883.
- Green, Wm. Henry, Moses and the Prophets, New York 1883.
- The Hebrew Feasts in their relation to recent critical hypotheses concerning the Pentateuch, Nisbet, 1886.
- Higher Criticism of the Pentateuch, Dickinson, 1895. — Unity of the Book of Genesis, Dickinson, 1895.
- —— and W. R. Harper, The Alleged Facts and Considerations of the Pentateuchal Analysis presented and criticised, Hebraica, 1888– 1892. [See § 30 (2.): these articles presenting both sides should not be overlooked.]
- Roos, Fr., Die Geschichtlichkeit des Pentateuchs insbesondere seiner Gesetzgebung, eine Prüfung der Wellhausen'schen Hypothese, Stuttgart 1883.

BOEHL, EDUARD, Zum Gesetz und zum Zeugniss, eine Abwehr wider die neu-kritische Schriftforschung im Alten Testament, Vienna 1883. [Seven sections—on the law, the covenant, parallels from Church history, the prophets, the modern conception of the Old Testament generally, the pia fraus, and the literary analysis in modern criticism.]

Müller, J., Kritischer Versuch über den Ursprung und die geschichtliche Entwicklung des Pesach und Mazzothfestes, nach den penta-

teuchischen Quellen, Bonn 1883.

Budde, Karl, Die Biblische Urgeschichte, Gen. i.-xii. 5 untersucht, Giessen 1883.

Koenig, F. E., Die Hauptprobleme der altisraelitischen Religionsgeschichte, gegenüber den Entwickelungstheoretikern beleuchtet, Leipsic 1884; translated by A. J. Campbell under the title The Religious History of Israel, a Discussion of the Chief Problems in Old Testament History as opposed to the Development Theorists, T. & T. Clark, 1885.

Rosenzweig, Adolf, Das Jahrhundert nach dem babylonischen Exile mit besonderer Rücksicht auf die religiöse Entwicklung des Juden-

tums, Berlin 1885.

Weill, Alexandre, Le Pentateuque selon Moïse et le Pentateuque selon Esra, Paris 1885, 1886.

Bissell, Edwin Cone, The Pentateuch, its Origin and Structure, an examination of recent theories, Hodder, 1885.

NAUMANN, O., Wellhausen's Methode kritisch beleuchtet, Leipsic 1886.

D'EICHTHAL, GUSTAVE, Mélanges de Critique Biblique, Paris 1886. VIGOUROUX, F., Les Livres Saints et la Critique Rationaliste, 4 vols.,

Paris 1886-1890. [Especially vol. iii.]

Martin, L'Abbe J. P. P., Introduction à la Critique Générale de l'Ancien Testament, 3 vols. 4to, Paris 1886-1889. [Lectures on the Origin of the Pentateuch delivered at the Higher School of Theology at Paris.]

Vos, Geerhardus, The Mosaic Origin of the Pentateuchal Codes,

1886.

Vernes, Maurice, Une Nouvelle Hypothèse sur la Composition et l'Origine du Deuteronome, Paris 1887.

Cave, Alfred, The Inspiration of the Old Testament Inductively Considered, 1888, 2nd edit. 1889. [Half of this book deals with the Higher Criticism of the Pentateuch.]

— The Battle of the Standpoints, The Old Testament and the Higher Criticism, 1st edit. 1890, 2nd edit. 1892, Spottiswoode.

[Brief and popular.]

GIRDLESTONE, R. B., The Foundations of the Bible, Studies in Old

Testament Criticism, Spottiswoode, 1890.

Leathes, Stanley, The Law in the Prophets, Spottiswoode, 1891.

[Attempts to discover how far the Prophets are familiar with the Law.]

- Albers, Emanuel, Die Quellenberichte in Josua i.-xii., Bonn 1891.
- Mead, Chas. Marsh, Christ and Criticism, Thoughts concerning the relation of Christian faith to Biblical criticism, New York 1892.
- Romans Dissected, a critical analysis of the Epistle to the Romans by E. D. M'Realsham, T. & T. Clark, 1891. [Challenges the method of literary criticism.]

Robertson, Jas., The Early Religion of Israel, as set forth by Biblical writers and by modern critical historians, Baird Lecture for 1889,

Blackwood, 1892, 3rd edit. 1893.

Westphal, Alexandre, Les Sources du Pentateuque, étude de critique et d'histoire, 2 vols., Paris 1888, 1892.

Spencer, F. E., Did Moses Write the Pentateuch after all? Stock, 1892.

- Schumann, G., Die Wellhausen'sche Pentateuchtheorie in ihren Grundzügen dargestellt und auf ihre Haltbarkeit geprüft, Karlsruhe 1892.
- Baentsch, Bruno, Das Bundesbuch, Exoden xx. 22-xxiii. 33, seine ursprüngliche Gestalt, sein Verhültniss zu den es umgebenden Quellenschriften und seine Stellung in der alttest. Gesetzgebung, Halle 1892.
- —— Das Heiligkeits-Gesetz Lev. xvii.-xxvi., eine historisch-kritische Untersuchung, Erfurt 1893.
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- Holzinger, H., Einleitung in den Hexateuch, Freiburg 1893. [With useful tables as to the distribution of the parts of the Hexateuch among various authors.]

KLOSTERMANN, AUGUST, Der Pentateuch, Beiträge zu seinem Verständniss und seiner Entstehungsgeschichte, Leipsic 1893.

- Briggs, C. A., The Higher Criticism of the Hexateuch, New York 1893.
- Zahn, Adolf, Ernste Blicke in den Wahn der modernen Kritik des Alten Testamentes, Gütersloh 1893, neue Folge 1894.
- —— Das Deuteronomium, eine Schutzschrift wider modern-kritisches Unwesen, 1890.
- Rupprecht, Eduard, Die Anschauung der kritischen Schule Wellhausens vom Pentateuch, ihr Wert und der Weg zur Selbstbehauptung der Kirche ihr gegenüber, Erlangen 1893.
- Lias, J. J., Principles of Biblical Criticism, Spottiswoode, 1893.
- Blomfield, Alfred, The Old Testament and the New Criticism, Stock, 1893.
- Beattie, Francis R., Radical Criticism, an exposition and examination of the radical critical theory concerning the literature and religious system of the Old Testament Scriptures, Chicago 1894.

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- 2. Geo. Rawlinson, Moses, the Author of the Levitical Code of Laws.
- 3. G. C. M. Douglas, The Deuteronomical Code.
- 4. R. R. GIRDLESTONE, Period of Joshua.
- 5. R. V. French, Period of the Judges. 6. J. J. Lias, The Times of Samuel and Saul.
- 7. F. Watson, The Period of David and Solomon.

- 9. ALEX. STEWART, The History of the
- Southern Kingdom in relation to the Law of Moses.
- 10. STANLEY LEATHES, The Eighth Century.
- 11. ROBT. SINKER, The Seventh Cen-
- 12. F. E. SPENCER, Ezekiel and the Priestly School.
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- 14. Henry Wace, Summary.
- Body, C. W. E., The Permanent Value of the Book of Genesis as an integral part of the Christian Revelation, Longmans, 1894.
- BAXTER, W. L., Sanctuary and Sacrifice, a Reply to Wellhausen, Spottiswoode, 1895.
- Steuernagel, C., Die Entstehung des deuteronomischen Gesetzes, kritisch und biblisch-theologisch untersucht, Halle 1896.

# (2) On Texts which show the Analysis of the Hexateuch, or Old Testament generally.

- Die heilige Schrift des Alten Testaments, übersetzt und herausgegeben von E. Kautzsch, in Verbindung mit Baethgen, Guthe, Kamphausen, Kittel, Marti, Rothstein, Rüetschi, Ryssel, Siegfried, and Socin, Freiburg 1890–1894. [Represents the several supposed authors of the Old Testament books by letters printed in the margin, such as P, J, E, D, Dt, R, in the Hexateuch, E, e, N, n, Q, q, Qa, qa, and Ch, in Ezra, Nehemiah, and Chronicles, etc. etc.
- Kautzsch, E., and A. Socin, Die Genesis mit ausserer Unterscheidung der Quellenschriften, 2nd edit., Freiburg 1891. Represents variety of authorship by variety of type.]
- Bissell, Edwin Cone, Genesis printed in Colours, showing the original sources from which it is supposed to have been compiled, with an introduction, Hartford, Conn., 1892.
- Addis, W. E., The Documents of the Hexateuch translated and arranged in chronological order, with introduction and notes, part 1, Nutt, 1892. [This first part gives The Oldest Book of Hebrew history, viz. The Jehovistic sections, Jahvist and Elohist being indicated by different type.]
- FRIPP, EDGAR INNES, The Composition of the Book of Genesis with English text and analysis, 12mo, Nutt, 1892. [By various types the varieties of authorship are indicated.]

BACON, BENJ. WISNER, The Genesis of Genesis, a study of the documentary sources of the first book of Moses in accordance with the results of critical science illustrating the presence of Bibles within the Bible, Hartford, U.S.A., 1892. [The text is that of the Revised Version, presenting the theory of various sources by varieties of type.

— The Triple Tradition of the Exodus, a study of the structure of the later Pentateuchal books, reproducing the sources of the narrative, and further illustrating the presence of Bibles within the Bible, Hartford, U.S.A., 1894. [The same method as the former

book.

HAUPT, PAUL, The Sacred Books of the Old Testament, etc. etc., see § 45 (2.). [By different colours the supposed variety of authorship is represented.

## (3.) On the Critical Questions attaching to the Gospels.

Note. - A good survey of the various attacks made upon the Gospels, their genuineness and authenticity, and of the replies these attacks have called forth, is to be found in the two first chapters of the second book of Carl Schwartz's So to be found in the two first enapters of the second blook of Cair Schwartz Straur Geschichte der neuesten Theologie, 4th edit., Leipsic 1869. One chapter deals with the impulse originating in Strauss, and the other chapter traces the history of the impulse imparted by Baur and the so-called Tübingen School. Another excellent survey will be found in Lichtenberger, History of German Theology, translated by W. Hastie, T. & T. Clark, 1889, pp. 374-420.

Ebrard, J. H. A., Wissenschaftliche Kritik der evangelischen Geschichte, 3rd edit., Frankfort 1868.

Orr, James, Authenticity of St. John's Gospel deduced from Internal

Evidence, Williams & Norgate, 1870.

LEATHES, STANLEY, The Witness of St. John to Christ, with an Appendix on the Authenticity of John, Boyle Lecture for 1870, Rivingtons, 1870.

Sanday, W., The Authorship and Historical Character of the Fourth

Gospel, Macmillan, 1872.

— The Gospels in the 2nd Century, an Examination of the Critical Part of "Supernatural Religion," Macmillan, 1876.

Beyschlag, W., Zur Johanneische Frage, Beiträge zur Würdigung

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UECHTRITZ, F. von. Studien über den Ursprung, die Beschaffenheit und Bedeutung des Evang. nach Johannes, Gotha 1876.

Weiss, B., Das Matthäus-Evangelium und seine Lukas-parallelen erklärt, Halle 1876.

— Das Marcus-Evangelium und seine synoptische Parallelen erklärt, Berlin 1871.

Supernatural Religion, An Inquiry into the Reality of Divine Revelation, in 3 vols., complete edition, 7th, thoroughly revised, Longmans, 1879. [The second part examines the evidence as to the date, authorship, and character of the Gospels, and asserts their unreliableness.]

Lightfoot, J. B., Essays on the Work entitled "Supernatural Religion," Macmillan, 1889. [Reprinted from the Contemporary

Review, 1874, etc.

A Reply to Dr. Lightfoot's Essays, by the Author of "Supernatural Religion," Longmans, 1889.
Westcott, Brooke Foss, An Introduction to the Study of the

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seiner Auslegung, Geschichte und Kritik, Berlin 1882.

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Watkins, Henry Wm., Modern Criticism considered in its relation to the Fourth Gospel, Bampton Lectures for 1890, Murray, 1890.

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EWALD, PAUL, Das Hauptproblem der Evangelienfrage und der Weg zu seiner Lösung, Leipsic 1890.

Wright, Arthur, The Composition of the Four Gospels, a critical

inquiry, Macmillan, 1890.

— A Synopsis of the Gospels in Greek, after the Westcott and Hort Text, 4to, Macmillan, 1896. [Assumes the truth of the oral hypothesis; but useful to all students of the composition of the Gospels.

Cone, Orello, Gospel-Criticism and Historical Christianity, a study of the Gospels and of the history of the Gospel-Canon during the second century, with a consideration of the results of modern

criticism. New York 1891.

Badham, F. P., The Formation of the Gospels, 2nd edit., Paul, 1892.

Jolley, Alfred J., The Synoptic Problem for English Readers, Macmillan, 1893.

Halcombe, J. J., What Think Ye of the Gospels? a handbook of Gospel study, T. & T. Clark, 1893.

#### BIBLICAL HERMENEUTICS.

§ 56.

### DEFINITION AND PROBLEM OF BIBLICAL HERMENEUTICS.

Having familiarised himself with the principles of textual criticism, and also with the facts and laws of Biblical philology, it might appear to the prospective interpreter of Scripture that he is sufficiently furnished to proceed with his more immediate task. But just as the unique position of the Bible has made the science of Biblical textual criticism a model in its breadth and completeness for all other varieties of textual criticism, it has also given birth to an additional science which might well become a model for the interpretation of any other ancient book. This further preparatory science is called Biblical Hermeneutics, or the science of the principles upon which the Bible should be interpreted. Some of those principles have already passed under review, but there are others which have not been hitherto mentioned. but which are so important that their acknowledgment should not only be deliberate, but should form a never-failing habit What the leading principles of the science of Biblical Hermeneutics are, might be presented in summary something as follows:---

The Bible being an ancient book which has been transmitted to us by numerous copies throughout a long course of years, Biblical Hermeneutics first points out, with various practical applications and inferences, that, as we have already seen, the primary necessity for an accurate exegesis is a criticism of the original text; no step being possible towards interpretation until the reliableness of the text itself has been ensured by the processes of textual criticism. Secondly, Biblical Hermeneutics proceeds to point out, with suitable expansion and rules for guidance, that the next step in a scientific procedure is, to ascertain by the laws of grammar and the facts of lexicology the philological meaning of

Scripture. With this second step we are also familiar. But new principles ensue. Thirdly, Biblical Hermeneutics points out that the Bible being an unique book, this purely philological meaning should be rectified by a comparison of Scripture with Scripture, the Bible being the best guide to the meaning of the Bible, and here come in rules for the study of the context, of parallel passages, and of quotations. Fourthly, Biblical Hermeneutics, following the general laws of interpretation under their specialised application to the books of Scripture, shows how textual, philological, and comparative criticism must be followed by what may be described as rhetorical criticism, which balances the rhetorical peculiarities of the time, the rhetorical peculiarities of the writer, the rhetorical peculiarities of the form of composition, whether parable or prophecy or narrative, and adjusts the interpretation accordingly. Fifthly, still observing the general laws of the interpretation of ancient books, archeological criticism is sometimes brought to bear, difficulties of many kinds being illuminated by means of contemporary history, geography, chronology, or manners and customs. Lastly, Biblical Hermeneutics points out that sympathy, or what in this instance is often called the analogia fidei, is as necessary for the interpretation of a sacred as a profane writer, and that sympathy in this instance involves a Biblical state of mind. In the elaboration of these several stages of interpretative criticism, — textual, philological, comparative, rhetorical, archæological, religious,—Biblical Hermeneutics is occupied, pointing out principles, stating rules, declaring difficulties, accumulating examples, all in a reasoned, luminous, and complete manner.

Such, then, is the problem which Biblical Hermeneutics undertakes to solve, and a more invigorating discipline cannot be undertaken by the interpreter of Scripture than to make himself acquainted with the rudiments of this science of Biblical interpretation. In all forms of speech, and with all varieties of instance and application, Biblical Hermeneutics says to him who would fain grasp firmly the meaning of Scripture,—first, study the original text, where critics differ, to the best of your ability; secondly, expound according to

philological rules, making use of a good lexicon and a good grammar; thirdly, correct your mere grammatical and lexicographical interpretation by a free use of the concordance, especially comparing Hebrew words with Hebrew synonyms or their Greek equivalents, and comparing Greek words with Greek synonyms and their Hebrew originals; fourthly, acquaint yourself with the archeology involved, including geography, chronology, history, and Oriental usage; fifthly, make any allowance necessitated—(a) by the spirit of the age, (b) by the spirit of the class of writings, (c) by the spirit of the writer, and (d) by the manifest intention of the writer; sixthly, never forget that the changed point of view produced by spiritual growth may make a past survey inadequate or a new survey more fruitful. What is here said briefly, Biblical Hermeneutics says with scientific accuracy, limitations, and fulness.

# § 57:

## HISTORY OF THE STUDY OF BIBLICAL HERMENEUTICS.

But it is desirable to state distinctly that the method of interpretion laid down with utmost brevity in the preceding section has not been the only hermeneutical method. Hence the desirability of saying something upon other tendencies in Biblical interpretation. Not that a careful and complete historical outline of the principles of interpretation uppermost at various ages, their flourishing and their decay, their growth and their transition, which would need a large volume, is called for here. All that is needed is such a summary view of the several tendencies seen in history as would impart intelligent firmness to the grasp of the principles of hermeneutics already laid down. In fact, in this instance, the history of the study broadly regarded is rather a statement of contemporaneous tendencies than of successive phases. At all times in the course of the Church there have been three tendencies in Biblical interpretation, more or less manifest and influential, namely, a tendency to seek veiled meanings in Scripture, a tendency to interpret the Bible from doctrinal standpoints, and a tendency, rare but growing, to find the meaning of the sacred text by strict rule and evidence. The first tendency may be called the allegorical; the second, the dogmatic; and the third, the scientific.

The early Christian interpreters were under special temptations to give their adhesion to the allegorical method. It was a favourite method with the Jewish schools. Philo, born about twenty years before Christ, is a good instance. Philo devoted himself mainly to the exposition of the Pentateuch, and feeling perplexed by its human views of God, set himself to explain these away by the allegorical method. His key to the difficulties he found in the Mosaic writings was that they had a twofold meaning, the one popular, evident, and exoteric, and the other esoteric, latent, and spiritual. The surface sense was acknowledged, but held to be for the illiterate; the wise would penetrate through the envelope of the literal history to the secret sense it enclosed. Philo's hermeneutical method was to rise by allegory from the plain anthropomorphic sense (τὸ ψυχικόν) to the higher or spiritual sense (τὸ πνευματικόν). In short, the simplest and most matter-of-fact histories were to be "spiritualised," as the phrase goes. Whatever the histories of the Genesis signified to the vulgar, to the enlightened they were so many aspects of the human soul (τρόποι ψυχής). Adam, for instance, was a figure of the sensuous nature, Rebecca a figure of patience, Leah of despised virtue, Egypt of the body, and Canaan of piety. Not only has this allegorical method developed into the fantastic interpretations of the Jewish Kabbala, but it has also vitiated much Christian exposition. It is, alas! not too severe a judgment to say that this allegorising tendency, this application to sober exegesis of what is allowable in sermons, has been more or less displayed in all ages of the Christian Church, sometimes becoming the predominant bias of whole epochs. This allegorising tendency tinged the arguments of the Apostolic Fathers in their controversy with Judaism; it was the ruling principle of the later Fathers in the East and in the West; the cold intellectualism of scholasticism did not eliminate it, for it was utilised, in somewhat more temperate forms, by men like Isidore of Hispala, the venerable Bede, Hugo St. Victor, and Abelard: it continued to flourish when the Reformation prompted renewed study of the Bible, as the writings of Calvin, Melancthon, and Zwingli testify, to say nothing of their followers and of Luther; and to-day it crops up only too frequently in commentaries as well as in preaching. most thoroughgoing advocate of the method was the great Origen, the conclusions of whose severe logic might well warn many off these treacherous quicksands of exposition. The motive of the allegorising method is intelligible enough; it mostly arises from an apologetic purpose. But its faults are as evident as its motive is good. It altogether misapprehends the relations existing between the Old and New Testaments; it fails to grasp the idea of development in the divine revelations; it sacrifices the naturalness of the Bible on the shrine of its difficulties. The method will always have its attractiveness for a certain order of ingenious minds, but it has not the remotest claim to be considered scientific, that is. reasoned and correct.

Like the allegorising method, the dogmatic method also approaches Scripture with preconceived opinions. It is seen in its grossest development in the Church of Rome, which expressly teaches that the true meaning and interpretation of Scripture must be found in the doctrine of the Roman Catholic Church, Scripture finding its highest sanction in the doctrine of the Church, instead of the doctrine of the Church finding its supreme sanction in Scripture. But this characteristic of Romanism has been found in many Churches, for many are the Churches which have read a creed into the Bible, in preference to framing the Bible into a creed. Of this method of interpretation it is not necessary to give illustrations. So frequent has been this use of the Bible in the interests of partisans. so common has been this interpretation of the Bible by ecclesiastical decision, that this dogmatic method has given rise in many minds to the belief that the Bible may be made to mean anything.

Alongside of these two methods, both eminently subjective,

there has usually been a third, as distinctly objective, which is gradually becoming recognised as the only legitimate method, and which is alone entitled to the name scientific, that is to say, inductive, since it alone inquires without bias what the Bible teaches, following without prejudice wherever the Bible may lead. This is the method which has been summarily described in the preceding section. It is strictly inductive, reasoning from the contents of the Bible alone. It eschews the deductive method entirely, neither reading Christianity into Judaism, nor ecclesiasticism into Christianity. method has had at most times some conspicuous advocates, to whom the great aim of exposition has always been to find out the actual sense of Scripture, irrespective of prepossessions. The great School of Antioch amongst the Fathers, with its eminent leaders, Lucian of Samosata, Theodore of Mopsuestia John Chrysostom, and Theodoret, followed this objective method according to their lights. So did the scholarly School of Edessa, men like Basil of Cæsarea, Gregory of Nyssa, Gregory of Nazianzum, and the great Jerome. From the fourth to the fifteenth century, examples of this more chastened and sober exegetical method are to be found, rarely it is true. After the days of the Renaissance, the method was naturally advocated by the Humanists, led by Erasmus and Reuchlin. A great impetus to its prosecution was given by the Reformation, which could have no foundation apart from an accurate and impregnable study of Scripture. Nor is it too much to say that in the several Protestant communions the scientific method has been gradually becoming better understood, and more widely and successfully applied. There have been occasional relapses to subjective methods, as in the several rationalistic schools and the typology of men like Coccejus; but side by side with an occasional falling out of the ranks on the part of some expositors, there has been a steady advance towards inductive and objective views along the whole line of Protestant commentating. The hermeneutic method described in the last section has few opponents to-day.

## § 58.

#### BOOKS RECOMMENDED ON BIBLICAL HERMENEUTICS.

## I. For Introductory Study.

Doedes, J. J., Manual of Hermeneutics for the Writings of the New Testament, translated from the Dutch by G. W. Stegmann, 12mo, T. & T. Clark, 1867. [Concise, with good references to related

literature.]

IMMER, A., Hermeneutik des Neuen Testamentes, Wittenberg 1873, translated from the German by Albert H. Newman, as Hermeneutics of the New Testament, 12mo, Andover 1877. [Divided into three parts—(1) the general principles of hermeneutics, (2) the single operations of the Scripture interpreter, (3) the religious relation.

## II. For More Advanced Study.

# (1.) On the Hermeneutics of both Old and New Testaments.

VAN MILDERT, WM., An Inquiry into the General Principles of Scripture Interpretation, Bampton Lecture 1814, 3rd edit. 1831.

Conybeare, J. J., History and Limits of Spiritual Interpretation of

Scripture, Bampton Lecture for 1824.

Wenyss, Thos., A Key to the Symbolical Language of Scripture, by which numerous passages are explained and illustrated, founded on the Symbolical Dictionary of Daubux, with additions from Vitringa, Ewaldus, and others, Edinburgh, T. & T. Clark, 12mo, 1835.

Davidson, Sam., Sacred Hermeneutics Developed and Applied, including a History of Biblical Interpretation from the Earliest

of the Fathers to the Reformation, Edinburgh 1843.

Bosanquet, S. R., Interpretation, being Rules and Principles assisting to the Reading and Understanding of the Holy Scriptures, Hatchards, 1874. [Contains much useful matter on style, idioms, prophecy, miracles, types, and divine methods in revelation.]

Cellerier, J. E., Manuel d'Herméneutique, Geneva, translated with additions by Charles Elliott and William J. Harsha, as Biblical Hermeneutics, New York 1881. [Introduction—Nature, History, and Division of Hermeneutics; Unity of Sense of Scripture; part 1, Psychological Hermeneutics; part 2, Grammatical Hermeneutics; part 3, Historical Hermeneutics; part 4, Scriptural Hermeneutics; part 5, Doctrinal Hermeneutics.]

Hofmann, J. C. K. von, Biblische Hermeneutik, nach Manuschriften und Vorlesungen herausgegeben von W. Volck, Nördlingen 1880. Terry, Milton S., Biblical Hermeneutics: a Treatise on the Interpretation of the Old and New Testaments, New York 1883; see Library of Biblical and Theological Literature, § 15 (3.). [Divided into three parts, viz. Introduction to Biblical hermeneutics, dealing with the language, criticism, and inspiration of the Bible, principles of Biblical hermeneutics, and history of Biblical interpretation.]

Farrar, F. W., *History of Interpretation*, Bampton Lecture for 1886. [Treats of the Rabbinic, Alexandrian, Patristic, Scholastic, Reformation, Post-Reformation, and Modern exegetical

methods.]

# (2.) On the Hermeneutics of the Old Testament.

GINSBURG, C. D., The Kabbalah: its Doctrines, Development, and Literature, Longmans, 1865. [History of a phase of interpretation frequently influential.]

Siegfried, Carl, Philo von Alexandria als Ausleger des Alten Testaments, Jena 1875. [History of another important phase of

interpretation.

Die Aufgabe der Geschichte der alttest. Auslegung in der Gegenwart, Jena 1876. [Points out, with some references to good books, the task of the present, viz. to study the history of interpretation to Ezra, and from Ezra to Christ, then to delineate the course of Jewish and of Christian interpretation in their several phases.]

Fraenkel, Z., Üeber den Einfluss der palästinischen Exegese auf

die alexandrinische Hermeneutik, Leipsic 1851.

# (3.) On the Hermeneutics of the New Testament.

Ernesti, J. A., Institutio interpretis Novi. Test. ad usum lectionum, 1st edit., Leipsic 1761, 4th edit., amended by Ammon, 1792. A good edition of this book was issued by Moses Stuart, with notes and additions from Morus, Beck, Keil, and Henderson, 4th edit., Andover 1842, also published under the title of Hermeneutical Manual, or Introduction to the Study of New Testament, translated by Charles H. Terrot, 2 vols. 12mo, Edinburgh 1832, T. & T.

Clark. [Still useful.]

Fairbairn, Patrick, Hermeneutical Manual, or Introduction to the Exegetical Study of the Scriptures of the New Testament, T. & T. Clark, 1858. [Divided into three parts, viz., (1) discussion of facts and principles bearing on the language and interpretation of New Testament Scripture; (2) dissertations on particular subjects connected with the exegesis of the New Testament, such as the genealogies, the names of Christ, βαπτίζω, ἄδης, etc.; and (3) the use made of the Old Testament in the writings of the New Testament.]

# (4.) On the Use of the Old Testament in the New.

Tholuck, A., Das Alte Testament im Neuen Testament, erste Beilage, Ueber die Citate des Alten Testaments in Neuen Testaments, 6th edit., Gotha 1868. [After a historical introduction, treats of the citations of the Old Testament in Jewish writers, by Jesus, in Paul,

in the Gospels, and in the Epistle to the Hebrews.]

Turpie, David M'Calman, The Old Testament in the New, a Contribution to Biblical Criticism and Interpretation, the quotations from the Old Testament in the New classified according to their agreement with or variation from the original, the various readings and versions of the passages added, and critical notes subjoined, Williams & Norgate, 1868.

The New Testament View of the Old, a Contribution to Biblical Introduction and Exegesis, Hodder & Stoughton, 1872. [In this volume the Introductory Formulæ to the quotations from the Old Testament in the New are discussed; a further volume is promised, in which the quotations themselves

are to be examined.]

Scott, James, Principles of New Testament Quotation established and applied to Biblical Criticism, and specially to the Gospels and Pentateuch, 2nd edit. 12mo, T. & T. Clark, 1877. [Divided into five parts, viz. formulas of quotation, principles of quotation, analogous quotation from ecclesiastical and classical writers, vindication of quotation, and application of principles.]

Toy, C. H., Quotations in the New Testament, New York 1884. [Shows a considerable freedom of quotation in the New Testament writers, and a very large use of the Greek and Aramaic versions.]

CLEMEN, August, Der Gebrauch des A. T. in den neutestamentlichen Schriften, Gütersloh 1895. [Use of the Old Testament in the Words of Jesus, in the Gospels and Acts, in the Catholic and Pauline Epistles, and in the Epistle to the Hebrews.]

# B. (contd.)—BIBLICAL THEOLOGY SPECIFICALLY CONSIDERED.

SECOND HEAD: BIBLICAL EXEGESIS.

§ 59.

DEFINITION AND PROBLEM OF BIBLICAL EXEGESIS.

After the lengthy consideration of the first head of Biblical theology specifically considered, or the several aids to Biblical exegesis, advance both sure and fruitful may now be made to Biblical exegesis itself. Exegesis,  $\xi\xi\eta\gamma\eta\sigma\iota$ s (from  $\xi\xi\eta\gamma\dot{\epsilon}o\mu\alpha\iota$ , I lead, describe, explain), is statement, explanation, exposition; and hence an exegete is an expositor, guide, interpreter. Biblical exegesis—for there may be exegesis of any book, and especially of any ancient book—is the exposition or interpretation of the Bible. In other words, Biblical exegesis is the product of the application of the several aids to Biblical interpretation already considered. The several introductory sciences, and especially the science of hermeneutics, present the theory of interpretation; exegesis shows the application of the theory.

Little more need be said either as to the definition or the problem of exegesis. But two additional points require emphasis.

On the one hand, exegesis is an art as well as a science. In this case, as in all art, theory has its use, but the most accurate acquaintance with the theory of exegesis does not necessarily make an exegete. Art implies aptitude, and often instinctive aptitude, as well as science; and the best exposition of Scripture results from the best exegetical aptitude, together with the best knowledge of method. The point is important; for many qualities, some of them rare, must combine to constitute exalted exegetical aptitude. There must be historic sense to transport oneself to a long-past life and a phase of civilisation; there must be vividness of apprehen-

sion; there must be imagination, sympathy, rapid appreciation of the thoughts of others, logical acumen, tact, a passionate love of truth, an entire freedom from bias; and last, but by no means least, moral and spiritual qualities of a high kind attributable to the divine inspiration alone. Indeed, the PROBLEM of exegesis is, by all possible aids, scientific and personal, to reproduce the contents of Scripture for modern times, all needful corrections having been made for latitude and for age.

On the other hand, there are three principal modes of effecting this great end of the exegete, which may be used either together or apart. These three forms of representation are commentary, paraphrase, and translation. Translation is the rendering in another language the actual words of the original, and is certainly the most difficult of the three methods. In paraphrase the sense of the original is rendered by periphrasis, circumlocution, the use of more and different words; this also demands almost as great ability as perfect translation. To the commentary, the easiest form of interpretation, brevity is not so necessary, brevity being in this case rather a quality of style than an essential of method. whilst the data upon which a judgment is based may allowably be given, as well as the results arrived at; in this case, further, the interpretation is presented, not in the very words of the original as in translation, nor by a careful rendering of the strict sense of the original in different words, as in paraphrase, but by comment, by remark, by observation, by criticism, by any means which will illustrate the sense of the original. As a rule, however, all three modes are adopted in the interpretation of Scripture, and any good commentary combines the several advantages derivable from translation and paraphrase and comment. Any good commentary on the Epistle to the Romans, for example, would first present as accurate a rendering as possible of the exact words of Paul, would then elucidate this translation by a paraphrastic rendering which would minimise the possibility of double meanings or vaguenesses to which bare translation is liable, and would then append, according to the taste, knowledge, method, or purpose of the writer, any additional matter which

would secure a vivid and exact appreciation of the actual thought of the great apostle. It is manifest that commentary as such gives large play to the individuality of those who write it, and that, according to the bent of mind or the purpose deliberately kept in view, the commentary may be more scientific or more popular, devoted to the needs of the advanced scholar or those of the working pastor.

# § 60.

#### HISTORY OF BIBLICAL EXEGESIS.

It will be remembered that when the history of hermeneutical study was presented (§ 57), the several leading methods of interpretation were briefly characterised. They were severally designated the allegorical method, the dogmatic, and the scientific. Although some historical matter was there introduced, the order of presentation was by preference synchronous. By way of completing, as far as our plan requires, the history of the interpretation of Scripture, it may be well to observe in this section an order more chronological. The one method of presentation is complementary to that of the other, but, as it was desirable then to see the principal tendencies displayed in Biblical interpretation, it is expedient now to show how various ages have been governed almost wholly by one predominant method. Indeed, as has been acutely pointed out by Dr. Credner and others, scientific interpretation goes hand in hand with the principle of spiritual progress, and the dogmatical with the conservative principle, the allegorical principle being very frequently an artificial aid subservient to the conservative principle. should also be added, that where there reigns either inability or disinclination to pursue the more laborious study of Scripture according to the scientific method, the allegorical becomes straightway the favourite method.

Little difficulty therefore is caused by the fact that the first method of interpretation commonly adopted by the Christian Church was the allegorical, adopted, that is to say,

in the solution of difficulties. The obvious grammatical meaning is of course naturally adopted by everyone, until that grammatical meaning lands in difficulties, when immediately recourse must be had to some further method. Nowadays, when the plain meaning shows itself inadequate to explain all that any passage or author intends, resort would be had to the more recondite principles of the scientific method, and study of the context or of Biblical analogy or of ancient manners and customs would possibly terminate the difficulty. In the early Church the allegorical interpretation presented a readier solution. Early in the second century the demand became urgent for a systematic presentation of the doctrines of the Bible, and especially urgent in Alexandria, where the example of Philo, himself but an example of his age and times, had given an exalted position to the allegorising method. Origen and Clement simply show us the way the current was running, and their example, and their easy and fascinating results, prompted many to follow their lead. After what has been already said of the method of Origen, further illustration is unnecessary.

However, there always lies one important objection against the allegorical method, namely, that it cannot be reduced to rule, and that, consequently, the interpretations it affords are apt to vary with the ingenuity and imaginativeness of those who employ it. It always fosters individualism in interpretation. How should a method which gives different results in almost every instance long satisfy those growing necessities which the entire Church of Christ was beginning to experience? If the method failed in producing what it was expressly framed to produce, that is to say, unanimity of belief, catholicity of creed, the natural inference was that there was something wrong in the method. Two other methods were possible, either of which might procure the desired unanimity, the method of authority, and the method of research. Authority could produce unanimity by silencing objectors; research could produce unanimity by ascertaining truth. From the fourth century the method of authority, the dogmatical method, began to sway the Christian Church. Difficulties of interpretation were solved by an appeal to the

consensus of those ecclesiastical teachers who had been recognised as orthodox by the Church. And this method had a long reign. Its leading principle was well expressed by Vincent of Lerins, when he wrote in words which are both familiar and dear to the lovers of ecclesiastical authority to-day: "Since the Holy Scriptures, on account of their depth, are not understood by all in the same manner, but their sentences are understood differently by different persons, so that they might seem to admit as many meanings as there are men, we must well take care that within the pale of the Catholic Church we hold fast what has been believed everywhere, always, and by all." Well and good, if catholicity and truth are identical; but surely a truer principle would be, not to make catholicity a test of truth, but truth a test for what is really catholic. At least, history testifies that, under the dominance of this method, exegesis languished, if it did not die, the interpretation of Scripture being confined to collecting the opinions of the orthodox upon Scripture. Difficulties were solved by precedent. From the fourth to the fifteenth century this dogmatical method was paramount. The important question as to what Scripture means was transformed into the not so important question, as to what orthodox teachers of the past have thought that Scripture means.

But a qualifying remark must be made. From the fourth to the fifteenth century the allegorical method was also to the front. The allegorical method was, in fact, a chosen handmaid to the dogmatical. For two reasons. On the one hand, the allegorical method was itself the favourite method of the very teachers whose deliverances were made authoritative; and, on the other hand, allegory, which was permissible, counterbalanced one great disadvantage of authority, by giving legitimate play to the individuality which authority crushes out. "Naturam expellas furca, tamen usque recurret, et mala perrumpet furtim fastidia victrix." To amend, therefore, the preceding statement, it should be said, that from the fourth to the fifteenth century the dominant method of interpretation was the dogmatical, the authorities in vogue declaring by theory and practice in favour of the allegorical method. Some protests were, of course, made against this tyranny of authority,

and men like Johannes Scotus, Erigena, Roger Bacon, and others would have prosecuted the scientific method had they known how.

The revival of classical studies, which had so large an influence in preparing the way for the Reformation, also affected Biblical interpretation very distinctly. Allegorical interpretation did not rule amongst the teachers of ancient Greek and Latin, and the philological laws which governed the interpretation of Plato and Cicero were manifestly applicable to the Old and New Testaments. The scientific method came therefore rapidly to the front at the epoch of the Reformation. And an additional reason besides the success of the scientific method in interpreting ancient profane authors told in favour of the application of the scientific method to the Scriptures: the whole spirit of the time was against the reign of ecclesiastical authority as such, and that dogmatical authority favoured an interpretation came to be regarded as an argument against rather than for. The Bible and not the Church became the standard of appeal upon religious matters at the time of the Reformation, and, of course, the Bible rationally, or scientifically, not ecclesiastically, interpreted.

For a time, it is to be feared, under the predominant tendency of the seventeenth century, even Protestantism recurred to the dogmatical standpoint, and the Bible was interpreted in harmony with the recognised creeds. Whereas creeds should be tested by the Bible, there was an indubitable tendency for a while to interpret the Bible by creeds. Again, however, the fetters of authority were snapped under the stress of battle. The conflicts of Arminians and Calvinists, and of Christians and Rationalists, distinctly aided the resuscitation of the scientific method. Both parties in the several conflicts were compelled to ask what the Bible actually taught, not what the creeds described the Bible as teaching. To-day the scientific method is acknowledged as the only true method by all Protestant Churches, and for years the scientific method itself has become both better understood, and more consistently and intelligently applied. The monuments of exegetical labour which testify to the industry of the English-speaking and Continental nations in the interpretation of Scripture, and which will be named and characterised in the next section, themselves witness at the same time to the correctness and the fruitfulness of the scientific method.

# § 61.

#### BOOKS RECOMMENDED ON BIBLICAL EXEGESIS.

Note 1.—The student is recommended to begin his study by the careful selection of some one good commentary upon each book of Holy Scripture; the general characteristics of books are given below. It is often of assistance to keep closely to one good commentary, which he has interleaved and annotated from other books which have come under his notice. He would be wise also to consult Spurgeon's Commenting and Commentaries, Two Lectures addressed to the Students of the Pastor's College, together with a Cutalogue of Biblical Commentaries and Exposition, Passmore & Alabaster, 1876. On Jewish Commentaries much information is given in Winter and Wünsche, Die jüdische Litteratur seit Abschluss des Kanons, 3 vols., Trèves 1891–1896.

Note 2.—All commentaries are to be regarded as exegetical, unless attention is called to some variation, such as the containing express homiletical matter.

# (1.) Commentaries on the whole Bible.

In the Early Church important commentaries upon the whole or nearly all of the Books of the Bible are found in Origen, Chrysostom, Jerome, Theodore of Mopsuestia, Augustine, and Theodoret.

In the Middle Age important commentaries upon the whole or nearly all of the Books of the Bible are found in Hrabanus Maurus, Theophylact, Hugo of St. Victor, Hugo of St. Caro, Thomas Aquinas, and Nicolas of Lyra, to whom, as identical in spirit, may be added Cornelius a Lapide, who died in 1637.

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GEORGE NEWTON, John xvii. Thomas Jacomb, Romans viii. WILLIAM GOUGE, Hebrews.

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John.

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Exodus, F. C. Cook and Samuel Clark.
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Numbers and Deuteronomy, T. E.
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Wisdom, F. W. Farrar,
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Band 2, Die Propheten.

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der Hebräer,—Hiob, das Salomonische Spruchbuch, der Prediger, die Weisheit's Jesu's des Solmes Sirachs, das Buch der Weisheit Sulomo's. Lehrreiche Erzählungen und andere erbauliche Schriften aus den letzten Zeiten des vorchristlichen Judenthums,—Jona, Tobia, Susanna, die Pagen des Darius, Baruch, das Gebet Manasse's.

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Judges, J. J. Lias.
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Genesis, T. Whitelaw, 9th edit. Exodus, Geo. Rawlinson, 2 vols., 5th

Leviticus, F. Meyrick, 5th edit. Numbers, R. Winterbotham, 5th edit. Deuteronomy, W. L. Alexander, 4th edit. Joshua, J. J. Lias, 6th edit. Judges and Ruth, A. Hervey and J.

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2 Kings, Geo. Rawlinson, 2nd edit. 1 and 2 Chronicles, P. C. Barker, 2 vols., 2nd edit.

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Acts, A. Hervey, 2 vols., 5th edit.

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Luke, Henry Burton.
John, 2 vols., Marcus Dods.

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 Ephesians, G. G. Findlay.
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# (2.) On the Whole of the Old Testament.

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1. Minor Prophets, 1st to 3rd edit, by Ferd. Hitzig, 4th edit. by H. Steiner.

Job, 1st edit. by L. Hirzel, 2nd by J. Olshausen, 3rd and 4th by A. Dillmann.

3. Jeremiah, 1st and 2nd edits. by Hitzig.

4. Samuel, 1st and 2nd edits. by Otto Thenius.

5. Isaiah, 1st to 3rd edits. by Knobel, 4th by L. Diestel, and 5th by Dill-

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7. Proverbs and Ecclesiastes; 1st edit. of Proverbs by Bertheau, 1st edit. of 14. Psalms, by Olshausen.

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(2) Jeremiah, F. Giesebrecht: Lamentations, Max Lohr.

# (3.) On the Pentateuch.

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IV. Romans, edits. 1-5, Meyer; edit.
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# (35.) On the Epistles of John.

Luecke, see (21.) of this section.

EBRARD, J. H. A., Biblical Commentary on the Epistles of St. John, translated by W. B. Pope, T. & T. Clark, 1860.

CANDLISH, R. S., The First Epistle of John Expounded, 2 vols. 12mo,

Edinburgh 1870. [Homiletical.]

Haupt, E., Der erste Brief des Johannes, Beitrag zur biblischen Theologie, Colberg 1869, translated by W. B. Pope under the title The First Epistle of John, a Contribution to Biblical Theology, T. & T. Clark, 1879.

Westcott, B. F., The Epistles of St. John, the Greek Text, with Notes and Essays, Macmillan, 1883, 3rd edit. 1892. [Admirable, especially as a guide to the theological standpoint of the apostle.]

Lias, J. J., The First Epistle of St. John, with exposition and homi-

letical treatment, Nisbet, 1887.

# (36.) On the Revelation.

Mede, Joseph, The Key of the Revelation, searched and demonstrated out of the Naturall and Proper Character of the Visions, with a Coment thereupon, according to the Rule of the same Key, published in Latine by the profoundly learned Master Joseph Mede, for their use to whom God hath given a love and desire of knowing and searching into that admirable Prophecie, translated into English by Richard More, London 1643.

Vitringa, C., Anakrisis Apocalypsios Joannis Apostoli qua in veras interpretandæ Ejus hypotheses diligenter inquiritur, et ex iisdem Interpretatio facta, certis Historiarum Monumentis confirmatur

atque illustratur, etc., 2nd edit., Amsterdam 1719.

STUART, Moses, A Commentary on the Apocalypse, 2 vols., Andover 1845; English edition, Tegg, 1854.

Wordsworth, Chr., Lectures on the Apocalypse, Hulsean Lectures for 1848. [See § 15 (3.).]

Hengstenberg, E. W., Die Offenbarung Johannes erläutert, 2 vols.,

2nd edit., Leipsic 1861-62.

ELLIOTT, C. B., Horæ Apocalypticæ, a Commentary on the Apocalypse, Critical and Historical, 5th edit., 4 vols., Seeley, 1862.

Vaughan, C. J., Lectures on the Revelation of St. John, 1862, 5th

edit. 1882, Macmillan. [Homiletical.]

Bleek, F., Vorlesungen über die Apocalypse, herausgegeben von Hossbach, Berlin 1862, translated under the title Dr. Friedrich Bleek's Lectures on the Apocalypse, edited by Samuel Davidson, Williams & Norgate, 1875. [Introductory questions and

exegesis.

Gebhardt, H., Der Lehrbegriff der Apokalypse und sein Verhöltniss zum Lehrbegriff des Evangeliums und der Epistel des Johannes, Gotha 1873, translated (badly) under the title The Doctrine of the Apocalypse and its relation to the Doctrine of the Gospel and Epistles of St. John, T. & T. Clark, 1878.

AUBERLEN, C. A., see (13.) of this section.

KLIEFOTH, TH., Die Offenbarung des Johannes, Leipsic 1874. L'Hote, J. B., L'Apocalypse expliqué par l'histoire, Paris 1876.

Waller, C. B., The Apocalypse viewed under the Light of the Unfolding Ages and the Restitution of all Things, Kegan Paul, 1878. Rosselet, G. A., L'Apocalypse et l'Histoire, 2 vols., Paris 1878.

Beck, J. T., Erklärung der Offenbarung Johannis, cap. 1-12,

herausgegeben von Jul. Lindenmeyer, Gütersloh 1884.

MILLIGAN, Wm., The Revelation of St. John, Baird Lecture for 1885, Macmillan, 1886, 3rd edit. 1892. [Introductory and expository lectures, with erudite notes, from the standpoint of scientific exegesis.]

Chauffard, A., L'Apocalypse et son Interpretation Historique,

2 vols. 12mo, Paris 1888.

VOELTER, D., Das Problem der Apocalypse, Freiburg 1893. [An attempt to trace a primitive and later documents in the Apocalypse.]

Bousset, W., Der Antichrist in der Ueberlieferung des Judenthums, des Neuen Testaments und der alten Kirche, Göttingen 1895.

# B. (contd.)—BIBLICAL THEOLOGY SPECIFICALLY CONSIDERED.

THIRD HEAD: BIBLICAL EXEGESIS APPLIED.

BIBLICAL HISTORY.

§ 62.

DEFINITION, PROBLEM, DIVISION, AND HISTORY OF BIBLICAL HISTORY.

The first science which results from the application of a scientific exegesis is Biblical history. Biblical history represents to the modern eye the several phases of life depicted in the Bible, the actions of the nations who move there, the lives of the prominent Biblical leaders and their influence, the relations of the Biblical peoples to the world outside of Judaism and Christianity, in a word the entire development of the Biblical peoples. Biblical history strives to photograph for modern readers the changing yet important phases of the developing life of the people of God as told in the Old and New Testaments. All history is the revivification of a past development, and Biblical history is a revivification of the development of those who were selected by God to be the organs of His revelation. By a minute search of the original sources given in the books of the Bible, which utilises at the same time all that the art and aptitude of a genuine historical sense can supply, as well as all extant contemporary or early profane accounts of the same phases of life, together with the testimony of any written records of the past carved in stone or impressed upon metal, the PROBLEM of Biblical history is to resuscitate the life and times of an Abraham, a Moses, a David, an Isaiah, an Apostle Paul.

From the nature of the case, Biblical history DIVIDES itself into three principal epochs, viz., first, the history of the

old covenant; secondly, the life of Christ; and thirdly, the apostolic history. Further, in order to aid the explanation of the second and third epochs, it is necessary to interpolate between the first epoch and the second the history of the Jews from the close of the Old Testament to the commencement of the New. The HISTORY itself of this study will be sufficiently presented by the chronological arrangement to be presently given of the most prominent books upon the subject.

# § 63.

#### BOOKS RECOMMENDED ON BIBLICAL HISTORY.

#### I. Introductory.

SMITH, WILLIAM, The Student's Manual of Old Testament History, from the Creation of the World to the Return of the Jews from Captivity, with an Introduction to the Books of the Old Testament, with maps and woodcuts, Murray, 1865, new edit. 1883; also, The Student's Manual of New Testament History with an Introduction connecting the history of the Old and New Testaments, Murray, 1862, new edit. 1884

# II. For More Advanced Study.

# (1.) Old Testament History.

Josephus, The Works of. The best edition is that of Niese; Flavii Josephi Opera edidit et apparatu critico instruxit Benedictus

Niese, 7 vols., Berlin 1887–1895.

Stanley, A. P., Lectures on the History of the Jewish Church, 1st edit. of the first series, Murray, 1862, various editions since: now in 3 vols., the first dealing with the history from Abraham to Samuel, 4th edit. 1866; the second with the history from Samuel to the Captivity, 2nd edit. 1866; and the third dealing with the history from the Captivity to the Christian era, 2nd edit. 1877, popular edition since. [Marked by all the beauty of style and vividness of historical sense of the author, but somewhat rationalistic.]

EWALD, H., Geschichte des Volkes Israel, 3rd edit., Göttingen 1864–1868: 1st vol., Einleitung in die Geschichte des Volkes Israel; 2nd vol., Geschichte Mose's und der Gottherrschaft in Israel; 3rd vol., Geschichte David's und der Königsherrschaft in Israel; appendix to 2nd and 3rd vols., Die Alterthümer des Volkes

Israel; 4th vol., Geschichte Ezra's und der Heiligherrschaft in Israel bis Christus; 5th vol., Geschichte Christus' und seiner Zeit; 6th vol., Geschichte des apostolischen Zeitalter bis zur Zerstörung Jerusalems; 7th vol., Geschichte der Ausgünge des Volkes Israels und des nachapostolischen Zeitalters; translated by J. E. Carpenter in 5 vols., under title of The History of Israel by Ewald, the supplementary volume being translated by Solly in one volume under the title of The Antiquities of Israel, Longmans, 1871, etc.

Grätz, H., Geschichte der Juden von den ültesten Zeiten bis auf die Gegenwart, in 11 vols., 2nd edit., Leipsic 1864–1895; an abridged translation by Bella Löwy and others, in 5 vols., Nutt,

1891, 1892. [Written by a learned Jew.]

Kurtz, J. H., Geschichte des Alten Bundes, vol. i., 3rd edit. 1865, Berlin, vol. ii., 2nd edit. 1858; also translated by Edersheim and Martin under the title of History of the Old Covenant, 3 vols., T. & T. Clark. [Studies of the Patriarchal Age, Israel in Egypt, and Israel in the Desert, to which the translators have prefixed a condensed abstract of Kurtz's suggestive essay on "The Bible

and Astronomy."]

MILMAN, H. H., The History of the Jews from the Earliest Period down to modern Times, 4th edit., revised and corrected, in 3 vols. 16mo, Murray, 1866. [Vol. i., with a good preface, treats of the history from the Patriarchal Age to the Captivity; vol. ii., from the Captivity to the Fall of Jerusalem; and vol. iii., of the history of the Jews in their relations with Christianity, the Barbarians, and Mohammedanism, of the Jews in England, Spain, and Italy, and of modern Judaism.]

Hengstenberg, E. W., Geschichte des Reiches Gottes unter dem Alten Bunde, 2 vols., Berlin 1870–1871; translated under the title of History of the Kingdom of God under the Old Testament,

2 vols., T. & T. Clark, 1871.

Seinecke, L., Geschichte des Volkes Israels, 2 vols., Göttingen 1874-1886.

Hitzig, F., Geschichte des Volkes Israel von Anbeginn bis zur Eroberung Masada's im Jahre 72 nach Christus, 2 vols., Leipsic 1869. [Divided into six books, pp. 1-320 giving the history to the end of the Persian supremacy, and pp. 321-629 the time

from Alexander the Great to 72 A.D.]

Stade, Bernhard, Geschichte des Volkes Israel, mit Illustrationen und Karten, in 2 vols., Berlin 1887, 1888. [Forms part of Oncken's admirable Allgemeine Geschichte in Einzeldarstellungen: vol. i. gives the History of Israel under the Monarchy; the first part of vol. ii. gives the History of pre-Christian Judaism, till the Grecian period; the second part of vol. ii., by Oscar Holtzmann, treats of the End of the Jewish Polity and the Rise of Christianity.]

Sime, Jas., The Kingdom of All-Israel, its History, Literature, and

Worship, Nisbet, 1883. [The history of the reigns of Saul, David, and Solomon, with reference throughout to the results of

recent criticism.]

Köhler, August, Lehrbuch der biblischen Geschichte des Alten Testaments, 1st half, Erlangen 1875; 2nd half, 1884, 1892. [Large references to related literature and recent critical views.]

RENAN, ERNEST, Histoire du Peuple d'Israël, 5 vols, Paris 1887-

1893.

Meignan, Cardinal, L'Ancien Testament dans ses rapports avec le Nouveau et la critique moderne, 7 vols., Paris 1890-95. [The best reply to Renan.]

KITTEL, R., Geschichte der Hebrüer, Gotha 1892, translated in

Theological Translation Library, see § 15 (3.).

M'Curdy, Jas. Fred., History, Prophecy, and the Monuments, vol. i., To the Downfall of Samaria, Macmillan, 1894. [A study almost wholly from original sources, in the interests of Bible history, of (1) the Northern Semites, (2) the Babylonians, (3) the Canaanites, Egyptians, and Hittites, (4) the Assyrians and Babylonians, (5) the Hebrews, Canaanites, and Aramæans, (6) the Hebrews, Aramæans, and Assyrians; the next volume will study (7) the Hebrews, Egyptians, and Assyrians, (8) the Hebrews and Chaldeans, (9) Hebrews and Persians.]

# (2.) History of Jews from the Close of the Old Testament to the Commencement of the New.

PRIDEAUX, HUMPHREY, The Old and New Testament connected in the History of the Jews and Neighbouring Nations from the Declension of the Kingdoms of Israel and Judah to the Time of Christ, 1st edit. 1716, in 3 vols. 8vo and 2 vols. folio; the best edition is the 11th, 2 parts in 4 vols., 1749. [Still the standard book on its subject.]

Jost, J. M., Geschichte des Judenthums und seiner Secten, 3 vols.,

Leipsic 1857-59. [A Jewish work.]

Wellhausen, J., Die Pharisier und die Sadducier, eine Untersuchung zur inneren jüdischen Geschichte, Greifswald 1874. [An examination of the essential characteristics of these two parties.]

Lucius, P. E., Der Essenismus in seinem Verhältniss zum Judenthum,

Strassburg 1881.

Montet, Eduard, Essai sur les Origines des parties Saducéen et Pharisien, et leur histoire jusqu'à la naissance de Jésus-Christ, Paris 1883. [Shows intimate knowledge of the sources of information and the related literature.]

Karpeles, G., Geschichte der jüdischen Literatur, 2 vols., Berlin 1886. [Much information under heading of Jewish Hellenic literature, as well as the headings Talmudic, Rabbinic, and Modern

Jewish Literature.

Winter, J., and Aug. Wünsche, Die jüdische Litteratur seit Abschluss des Kanons, eine prosaische und poetische Anthologie mit biographischen und litterargeschichtlichen Einleitungen unter Mitwirkung von W. Bacher, Sam. Bück, Ph. Bloch, J. Fürst, M. Grünbaum, J. Hamburger, A. Kaminka, M. Kayserling, Ad. Lewin, A. Sulzbach u. A., Trèves, 3 vols., 1891–1896. [Vol. i. deals with the Hellenistic and Targumist literature; vol. ii. with the Rabbinic; and vol. iii. with the poetical, cabalistic, historical, and modern literature: a monumental book of much value in studying Biblical literature.]

#### (3.) The Life of Christ.

Note.—For additional chronological studies see § 53 (8.), especially Caspari and Andrews.

Paulus, H. E. G., Das Leben Jesu, als Grundlage einer reinen Geschichte des Urchristenthums, dargestellt durch eine allgemeinverständliche Geschichterzühlung über alle Abschnitte der vier Evangelien und eine wortgetreue, durch Zwischensätze erklärte Uebersetzung des nach der Zeitfolge und synoptisch-geordneten Textes derselben, 2 vols., Heidelberg 1828. [Attempts to explain the life of Christ on purely natural grounds, the miracles being

regarded as misinterpreted natural phenomena.

Strauss, D. F., Das Leben Jesu kritisch bearbeitet, 2 vols., Tübingen, 1st edit. 1835, 4th edit. 1840, translated under the title The Life of Jesus Critically Examined, 3 vols., 1846; also, Das Leben Jesu für das deutsche Volk bearbeitet, Leipsic 1864, translated under the title of A New Life of Jesus, 2 vols., Williams & Norgate, 1865. [Another attempt to explain the life of Christ on purely natural grounds, the miraculous being regarded in this case as myth which has accreted round a kernel of fact.]

HASE, KARL, Das Leben Jesu, Leipsic 1829, 7th edit. 1875, translated by J. Freeman Clarke, 12mo, Boston 1881. [A compendium of the life of Christ for theological students, peculiarly rich in its

references to related literature under every head.]

— Geschichte Jesu, nach akademischen Vorlesungen, 2nd edition as vol. iv. of Hase's Gesammelte Werke, Leipsic 1891. [Not such a compendium as the above, but a full life of Christ in literary

form.

NEANDER, Aug., Das Leben Jesu Christi, Gotha 1837, 7th edit. 1873, translated by John M'Clintock and C. E. Blumenthal under the title of The Life of Jesus Christ in its Historical Connection and Historical Development, Bohn 1853. [Written in reply to Strauss; excels in vivid and spiritual interpretation of the life of Christ.]

Lange, J. P., Das Leben Jesu nach den Evangelien, 3 vols.,
 Heidelberg 1844-47, translated by Sophia Taylor and J. E.
 Ryland under the title of The Life of the Lord Jesus Christ: a

complete critical examination of the origin, contents, and connection of the Gospels, 4 vols., T. & T. Clark, 1872. [Stands in the front rank; it first presents the life of Christ as given in the four Gospels together, and then as given by each Gospel separately

from its peculiar standpoint.

Hervey, Arthur, The Genealogies of our Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ, as contained in the Gospels of St. Matthew and St. Luke, reconciled with each other, and with the genealogy of the House of David, from Adam to the close of the Canon of the Old Testament, and shown to be in harmony with the true chronology of the times, Macmillan, 1853.

Hofmann, R., Das Leben Jesu nach den Apocryphen, Leipsic 1851. Riggenbach, C. J., Vorlesungen über das Leben des Herrn Jesu, Bâle 1858. [Popular lectures, marked by accuracy, grace,

reverence, and spiritual discernment.]

Ellicott, C. J., Historical Lectures on the Life of our Lord Jesus Christ, Hulsean Lectures for 1859, 5th edit. revised, 1869. [Shows suggestively the historical connection of the events in the life of Christ, and gives approximately their true chronological

positions to the several discourses of Jesus.]

Renan, Ernest, Vie de Jésus, 1st edit., Paris 1863, 17th edit., revised and augmented (a reprint of the 13th edition, which was materially altered), 1882; several English translations have appeared in New York and in London. [The view of a Frenchman and an anti-supernaturalist, containing incidentally many beautiful descriptions of the scenes of Christ's life.]

Schenkel, D., Das Charakterbild Jesu wissenschaftlich untersucht und dargestellt, Wiesbaden, 1st edit. 1864, 4th edit. 1873; translated under the title A Sketch of the Character of Jesus, a Biblical Essay, Longmans, 1869. [Another anti-supernatural study.]

Zumpt, A. W., Das Geburtsjahr Christi, geschichtlich-chronologische

Untersuchungen, Leipsic 1869.

Jameson, Mrs., The History of our Lord as exemplified in Works of Art, with that of His Types, St. John the Baptist and other Persons of the Old and New Testament, continued and completed by Lady Eastlake, 2 vols., Longmans, 1864. [A fascinating branch of the author's well-known studies of Christian art.]

Colani, T., Jésus-Christ et les croyances messianiques de son temps,

2nd edit., Paris 1864.

Ecce Homo, a Survey of the Life and Work of Jesus Christ, 5th edit., with new preface, Macmillan, 1866, 15th edit. 1885. [Striking, but professedly fragmentary; especially suggestive in its treatment of the legislation of Jesus.]

Parker, Joseph, Ecce Deus, Essays on the Life and Doctrine of Jesus Christ, with controversial notes on "Ecce Homo," T. & T. Clark, 1867; cheaper edition, in 12mo, Hodder, 1868. [Essays

on the supernatural side of the life of Jesus.]

Steinmeyer, F. L., Apologetische Beiträge, i. Die Wunderthaten des

Herrn, Berlin 1866; ii. Die Leidengeschichte des Herrn, 1868; iii. Die Auferstehungsgeschichte, 1871; iv. Die Geschichte der Geburt des Herrn und seiner ersten Schritte im Leben, 1873. [A series of sermons by this eloquent University preacher, deserving study for their defence of evangelical Christianity. iii. has been

translated, see § 61 (17.).

Keim, Theodor, Geschichte Jesu ron Nazara in ihrer Verkettung mit dem Gesammtleben seines Volkes frei untersucht und ausführlich erzühlt, 3 vols., Zürich 1867-72; translated by Arthur Ransom under the title of The History of Jesus of Nazara, freely investigated in its connection with the national life of Israel and related in detail, 6 vols., 1873-83. [Noteworthy for its research, but pronounced in its rationalism.]

Wittichen, Carl, Das Leben Jesu in urkundlicher Darstellung, eine kritische Bearbeitung der Evangelien nach Markus, Matthæus und Lucas, mit Einleitung und Erläuterungen, Jena 1876. [Allows the Gospels to speak for themselves, but coloured throughout by

the peculiar critical views of the author.]

Schuerer, E., Lehrbuch der neutest. Zeitgeschichte, Leipsic 1873.

[All that a handbook should be.]

—— A History of the Jewish People in the time of Jesus Christ, being a second and revised edition of a Manual of the History of New Testament Times, translated by John Macpherson, 5 vols. and index, 1885–1891.

Farrar, F. W., The Life of Christ, 2 vols., Cassell, 1st edit. 1876;

many editions since. [Popular.]

Geikie, Cunningham, The Life and Words of Christ, 2 vols. 4to, Strahan, 1878, and various editions since. [The best descriptive life yet written in English; strong in its knowledge of contemporary history and archæology.]

Philochristus, Memoirs of a Disciple of the Lord, Macmillan, 1878.

[A romance, supposed to be written by a contemporary of Jesus;

rationalistic.

Hausrath, A., Neutestamentliche Zeitgeschichte, 4 vols., 3rd edit., Münich 1879; translated under the title History of the New Testament Times, Times of Jesus, 2 vols., Williams & Norgate, 1882; and Times of the Apostles, 4 vols., translated by L. Huxley, with a preface by Mrs. Humphrey Ward, 1895.

Pressensé, E. de, Jesus Christ, His Times, Life, and Work, translated from the French by Annie Harwood-Holmden, 7th edit. unabridged, Hodder, 1879. [Expounding everywhere the super-

natural side of the life of Jesus.

FAIRBAIRN, A. M., Studies in the Life of Christ, Hodder, 1881, 6th

edit. 1892.

Weiss, Bernh., Das Leben Jesu, 2 vols., Berlin 1882, 3rd edit. 1888; translated by J. W. Hope under the title of The Life of Christ, 3 vols., T. & T. Clark, 1883-84. [Fearless in criticism, yet evangelical in teaching.]

Edersheim, Alfred, The Life and Times of Jesus the Messiah, 2 vols., Longmans, 1884, abridged edition 1886. [The object, says the writer, is "to view the life and teaching of Christ in its surroundings of place, society, popular life, and intellectual or moral development"; strong in its knowledge of rabbinical literature.]

Beyschlag, Willibald, Das Leben Jesu, 2 vols., 1885, 1886, 3rd

edit. 1893. [Ritschlian.]

Didon, Le Père, Jesus Christ, 2 vols., Paris 1890, and many editions subsequently. [The Roman Catholic rival of Renan's Vie de Jésus.]

# (4.) The History of the Apostles.

Neander, A., Geschichte der Pflanzung und Leitung der christlichen Kirche durch die Apostel, 1st edit. 1832, 5th edit. 1863, Gotha; translated by J. E. Ryland under the title History of the Planting and Training of the Christian Church by the Apostles, Bell & Daldy, 2 vols., 1864. [A good German edition appears in the Bibliothek theolog. Klassiker, see § 15 (3.).]

Lechler, G. V., Das apostolische und nach-apostolische Zeitalter, 2nd edit., Amsterdam 1857; also, The Apostolic and Post-Apostolic Times, their diversity and unity in life and doctrine, 3rd edit., thoroughly revised and rewritten, translated by A. J. K.

Davidson, 2 vols., T. & T. Clark, 1886.

RENAN, ERNEST, Les Apôtres, Paris 1866. [Carries on the history

of the origins of Christianity to the conversion of Paul.]

—— Saint Paul, avec une carte des voyages de Saint Paul par Kiepert, Paris 1869. [Written, like the preceding, with great charm of style, but from the well-known rationalistic and French

standpoint of the author.

Baur, F. C., Paulus, der Apostel Jesu Christi, sein Leben und Wirken, seine Briefe und seine Lehre, ein Beitrag zu einer kritischen Geschichte des Urchristenthums, 2nd edit., edited after the death of the author by E. Zeller, 2 vols., Leipsic 1866-67; translated by A. Menzies under the title, Paul, the Apostle of Jesus Christ, his Life and Works, his Epistles and Teachings, a Contribution to a Critical History of Primitive Christianity, Williams & Norgate, 2 vols., 1873-75. [Advocates the so-called Tübingen theory of the life and work of Paul.]

Conybeare, W. J., and J. S. Howson, The Life and Epistles of Paul, revised edition in 2 vols. 4to, Longmans, 1875, the translation of the epistles and speeches of St. Paul being contributed by Conybeare, and the historical and geographical part of the work by Howson. This library edition contains all the original illustrations, maps, landscapes on steel, and woodcuts. An

intermediate edition has been published in 2 vols. square crown 8vo, with a selection of maps, plates, and woodcuts; and a popular edition in 2 vols. 8vo, also in 1 vol. 8vo, revised and condensed, with 46 illustrations and maps. [Aims very successfully at giving a living picture of St. Paul and of his environment.]

Lewin, Thos., The Life and Epistles of Saint Paul, 4th edit., revised, 2 vols. 4to, 1878, George Bell & Sons, 5th edit. 1890. [Not so popular as Conybeare's life, but stronger in its chronology,

archæology, illustrations, and historical setting.]

Macdonald, J. M., The Life and Writings of St. John, edited with

an Introduction by J. S. Howson, Hodder, 1879.

Pressense, E. de, The Early Years of Christianity; a Comprehensive History of the First Three Centuries of the Christian Church, translated by Annie Harwood-Holmden, vol. i., The Apostolic Age, Hodder, 1879. [Not a mere translation of the French edition, but the presentation of that work in a considerably altered form; an excellent survey of the history and teaching of the Apostolic Age.]

FARRAR, F. W., The Life and Work of St. Paul, 2 vols., with coloured maps, Cassell, 1879; many editions since. [Does not compete in historical lore with Conybeare and Lewin, but has a distinct purpose "to give a definite, accurate, and intelligible

impression of St Paul's teaching."]

The Early Days of Christianity, 2 vols., Cassell, 1882; several editions since. [Attempts to set forth, in their distinctive characteristics, the work and the writings of St. Peter, St. James, St. Jude, St. John, and the author of the Epistle to the Hebrews.]

SMITH, JAMES, The Voyage and Shipwreck of St. Paul, with Dissertations on the Life and Writings of St. Luke and the Ships and Navigation of the Ancients, 4th edit., revised and corrected by W. E. Smith, Longmans, 1880. [A minute corroboration, by

original research, of the narrative in the Acts.]

Schaff, Philip, History of the Christian Church, Apostolic Christianity, in 2 vols., a new edition, thoroughly revised and enlarged, T. & T. Clark, 1883. [The best survey of the period in English.]

Howson, J. S., Horce Petrine, or Studies in the Life of St. Peter,

Religious Tract Society, 1883. [Popular but exact.]

Weizercker, Carl, Das apostolische Zeitalter der christlichen Kirche, Freiburg 1886, 2nd edit. 1892. [A full discussion of (1) the earliest Jewish Christians; (2) the work and teaching of Paul; (3) the Pauline churches in Galatia, Macedonia, Achaia, and Asia; (4) the further Christian development in Jerusalem, Rome, and Ephesus; (5) the assemblies, government, and customs of the early Church. For translation see Theological Translation Library, § 15 (3.).]

Spitta, F., Zur Geschichte und Literatur des Urchristenthums, vol. i., Göttingen 1893, vol. ii. 1896.

Vol. 1. Paul's double imprisonment at Rome; The 2nd Epistle to the Thessalonians; Disarrangements in the Text of the 4th Gospel; Primitive traditions on the origin and meaning of the Lord's Supper.

Vol. 2. The Epistle of James; Studies in the "Shepherd of Hermas."

RAMSAY, W. M., The Church in the Roman Empire before A.D. 170, with maps and illustrations, Hodder, 1893, 4th edit. 1896. [Part 1 treats of Paul in Asia Minor, and part 2 of A.D. 64-170.] \_\_\_ St. Paul the Traveller and the Roman Citizen, with map, Hodder, 1895; 2nd thousand, 1896.

#### BIBLICAL DOGMATICS.

#### § 64.

DEFINITION, PROBLEM, DIVISION, AND HISTORY OF BIBLICAL DOGMATICS.

A second theological discipline resulting from the application of a scientific exegesis is Biblical Dogmatics, in which the doctrines of the Bible are inductively considered and compared. Biblical Dogmatics is often called Biblical Theology, and the name may be sometimes employed to advantage when the context makes the reference to doctrine and nothing but doctrine clear; but, as has been previously remarked more than once, the term Biblical Theology has been used in a wider and a narrower sense; in a narrower, where it is equivalent to the scientific study of the doctrines of the Bible, the discipline before us, and in a wider sense where the term is synonymous with the scientific study of the whole Bible, and therefore of very much more than its doctrines. To avoid this ambiguity, the term Biblical Dogmatics has been selected for the narrower signification. It is true that Biblical Dogmatics is not quite unexceptionable, because of the unfortunate idea of authority which attaches to the word dogma. However, it is scarcely necessary to add that dogma is used in its Protestant sense of "doctrine," the formulated statement of religious truth which at once summarises and expresses the Biblical declarations. For Biblical

Dogmatics, the name Biblical Doctrinal Theology may be used if the reader is so inclined. At any rate Biblical dogmatics, preferable because of its greater brevity, is exactly synonymous with the doctrinal theology of the Bible.

The PROBLEM of Biblical dogmatics, therefore, is to solve the question how to ascertain inductively, and to present, the doctrinal contents of Holy Scripture. By the nature of its method, which being inductive follows strictly the order of development of the Biblical books, Biblical dogmatics pursues a genetic or historical method. As a matter of fact, the doctrines of the Bible represent various phases of development, and those phases Biblical dogmatics must represent with accuracy if it would be faithful to its aim. It is true that this development in the delivery of Biblical doctrine has not always been understood, and thus in the early stages of the formulation of the science, the several Biblical doctrines were arranged rather under a subject than a time classification, the doctrine of God, for example, and the doctrine of sin, being presented without any reference whatever to more or less mature conceptions of the doctrine, but simply by placing side by side proof passages from Genesis or from Revelation. whole course of Biblical dogmatics is to-day, with more justice, regarded as governed by a law of development. Judaism does not present a doctrinal form so mature as Christianity, and this relative immaturity appears in our science. The problem of Biblical dogmatics is, in fact, to present the several phases of Biblical revelation, observing everywhere the law of progress by which the Deity has bound Himself, without doubt wisely, in the delivery of truth to mankind.

The division, therefore, of Biblical dogmatics is primarily twofold. There is first analytical Biblical dogmatics, which presents the several phases of Biblical doctrine in their due order of development; and there is next synthetical Biblical dogmatics, which presents the higher unity of the several phases of Biblical doctrine, showing the organic connection throughout. Analytical Biblical dogmatics has again a twofold division; on the one hand, we have the Biblical dogmatics of the Old Testament, and on the other hand, the Biblical dogmatics of the New Testament. Each of these leading divisions

has then various subdivisions. The dogmatics of the Old Testament must be treated under three branches, viz. first, the doctrines of the Patriarchal Age, from Adam to Moses; secondly, the doctrines of Mosaism and the Law; and thirdly, the doctrines of the Prophetic Age, the further revelations which were made by prophets from the death of Moses to the close of the Old Covenant. Again, the dogmatics of the New Testament must be treated under two branches, viz. first, the theology of Jesus Christ, and secondly, the theology of the apostles, which again falls into several groups, seeing that we have the theology of Peter, with whom James and Jude may be associated, the theology of Paul, and the theology of John. Analytical Biblical Dogmatics having then presented the doctrines of the Bible in their consecution, synthetical Biblical Dogmatics presents these doctrines in their higher organic unity. The whole scheme would run as follows :---

# Biblical Dogmatics is divided into—

- I. An analytical part, subdividing into-
  - The theology of the Old Testament.

     α. In the Patriarchal Age.
    - b. In the life of Moses.
    - b. In the life of Moses.
    - c. From Moses to the close of the canon.
  - 2. The theology of the New Testament, viz.
    - a. The theology of Christ.
    - b. The theology of the apostles, viz.—
      - (1) Of Peter, James, and Jude.
      - (2) Of Paul.
      - (3) Of John.
- A synthetical part, subdividing into—
   The Biblical doctrine of God.
  - 2. ,, ,, angels. 3. . . . world.
  - 4. ,, ,, world man.
  - 5. ,, ,, evil. salvation.
  - 6. ,, ,, salvation. 7. . . . . . the church.
  - 8. . . the last things.

Turning to the HISTORY of the study of Biblical Dogmatics, it may be said that, as an independent part of theological science, that study was but little prosecuted before the beginning of this century. In a sense, of course, the beginning

of Biblical dogmatics was coeval with that of Christian theology, for the doctrines of the Bible have always been employed in controversy with heathen, heretics, and Jews. However, as an independent part of theological science, Biblical dogmatics is scarcely a hundred years old. That the Middle Ages were not favourable to works on Biblical dogmatics is evident from the leading characteristics of that time. Even the Reformation had scarcely taught men to distinguish between doctrinal theology as such and the doctrinal theology of Scripture, whereas in the seventeenth century the boundary line between Biblical and confessional dogmatics became more and more confused. The seventeenth century was in fact too largely the time for an authoritative rather than a scientific method of interpretation to give birth to Biblical dogmatics. It needed the destructive criticism of the eighteenth century to lead men to ask not what was taught in their creeds, but what was taught in their Bibles. A purely Biblical tendency began to show itself strongly towards the middle of the eighteenth century, as is evidenced by such works as Heyman's Versuch einer biblischen Theologie in Tabellen, 4th edit. 1758, and Busching's Epitome Theologice e solis litteris sacris concinnatæ, Lemgo 1757, and as is yet more clearly evidenced in Zachariæ's Biblische Theologie, oder Untersuchung des biblischen Grundes der vornehmsten theologischen Lehren, 1st edit., Göttingen and Kiel 1771-1775, 3rd edit, 1786, and by Storr's Doctrina Christiana e solis litteris saeris repetitæ, Stuttgart 1793. Heyman's and Busching's works were intended indeed for practical use purely, but they show the current of opinion; whereas Zachariæ's work marks an epoch in our science. Zachariæ understood by Biblical theology, in its narrower sense, "not that theology the substance of which is taken from Scripture, for in this sense every theological system must be Biblical, but more generally a precise definition of all the doctrines treated of in systematic theology, the correct meaning which, in accordance with Scripture, should be applied to them, and the best arguments in their defence." His was accordingly the first attempt to

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See an excellent survey of the study of Biblical theology in Briggs, *Biblical Study*, New York and Edinburgh (T. & T. Clark), 1883, chapter xi.

treat Biblical dogmatics as a distinct branch of theological The method of Zachariæ was followed by Storr, whose book was translated into German, with additions by C. Ch. Flatt, 1803, 1813, and thence into English, with additions by S. S. Schmucker, 1st American edit. 1826, 2nd 1836, this 2nd American edition having been reprinted in England. In both books the method of systematic theology was borrowed, and the several doctrines of Christianity were treated in order, without any respect to the development of doctrine. To some extent they are useful, therefore, in framing what has been called synthetical Biblical dogmatics; they are useless in obtaining a view of the analytical science. next step necessary to start our science on a career of progressive improvement was to realise the progressive character of the Biblical revelation. This step was taken by a rationalist, J. Ph. Gabler, in his academical prelection, De justo discrimine theologiæ biblicæ et dogmaticæ, published in 4to at Altdorf, 1787. Gabler recognised in this discourse the historical character of Biblical theology, and demanded that regard should be had to the various Biblical forms of teaching, forms conditioned both by the individuality of the writers and the time of their writing. From the time of Gabler, and especially from the time of Neander's History of the Planting of Christianity, 1832, which so ably put Gabler's principle into practice, this conception of the various phases of Biblical doctrine has been recognised by all writers of note upon Biblical dogmatics. A further step yet remains to be taken. In the first phase of the separate prosecution of Biblical dogmatics, the synthetical method was followed without any recognition of the analytical. In the second phase, initiated by Gabler, the analytical method alone has been followed, and Schmid and Oehler, Reuss and Schültz, Weiss and Kuenen, to mention prominent names only, have thought their task complete when they have presented the several phases of the doctrine of the Old or New Testament. Yet a third phase remains. Biblical dogmatics is the science of the doctrines contained in the Bible. Books are wanted, which, profiting by all the labours of the past, shall present our science in its entire range, showing all that is known of the

analytical part of our science, but showing the synthetical part also. The doctrines of Christ and His apostles, to say nothing of the doctrines of Moses and the prophets, are only completely understood when they are presented in all their organic unity as well as historical diversity. The life-story of a tree is not known when we have separate descriptions of seed, and sapling, and trunk, and branches, and fruit; from these separate descriptions a unified idea must come if the whole life-story is to be intelligible.

# § 65.

#### BOOKS RECOMMENDED ON BIBLICAL DOGMATICS.

#### I. For Introductory Study.

Oosterzee, J. J. van, The Theology of the New Testament, a Handbook for Bible Students, translated from the Dutch by Maurice J. Evans, Hodder, 1870, 4th edit. 1884. [A handbook to the whole range of the subject; its first part treats of the Old Testament basis under the heads of Mosaism, Prophetism, Judaism, and John the Baptist.]

# II. For More Advanced Study.

(1.) Books on Biblical Dogmatics of both Old and New Testaments.

Hofmann, J. C. K. von, Der Schriftbeweis, Ein theologischer Versuch, 2nd and largely altered edition, 3 vols., Nördlingen 1857–1860. [A summary of the Biblical teaching on the whole range of doctrines; synthetical.]

EWALD, H., Lehre der Bibel von Gott oder Theologie des Alten und Neuen Bundes, 4 vols., Leipsic 1871-1876. [Synthetical.]

— Revelation, its Nature and Record, translated from the German by Thomas Goadby, T. & T. Clark, 1884. [The first volume of the preceding work.]

FAIRBAIRN, PATRICK, The Typology of Scripture, viewed in connection with the whole series of the Divine Dispensations, 6th edit., 2 vols., T. & T. Clark, 1876. [The best book on its subject.]

Gardner. Frederic, The Old and New Testaments in their Mutual Relations, New York 1885. [Treats of their unity, progress, sacrifice, priesthood, prophecy, typology, quotations.]

Schlottmann, Konstantin, Kompendium der biblischen Theologie des alten und neuen Testaments, herausgegeben von Ernst Kühn, Leipsic 1889. [Brief: synthetical.]
ALEXANDER, W. LINDSAY, A System of Biblical Theology, 2 vols.,

T. & T. Clark, 1888, [Synthetical.]

# (2.) On Biblical Dogmatics of the Old Testament as a Whole.

Haevernick, H. A. C., Vorlesungen über die Theologie des A. T., Erlangen 1848; 2nd edit., with notes by H. Schültz, Frankfort 1863.

Schultz, H., Alttestamentliche Theologie, Die Offenbarungsreligion auf ihrer vorchristlichen Entwickelungsstufe, 2 vols. Frankfort 1869, 2nd edit. 1878, 5th edit. 1895; translated by J. A. Paterson as Old Testament Theology, 2 vols., T. & T. Clark, 1889, 2nd edit. 1895. [The 2nd and subsequent German editions rearrange much of the material according to Graf's theory of Mosaism.]

OEHLER, G. F., Theologie des Alten Testaments, 2 vols., Tübingen 1873, 1874, 3rd edit. 1891; also, Prolegomena zur Theologie des A. T., Stuttgart 1845; the former translated by Ellen D. Smith and Sophia Taylor under the title of Theology of the Old Testa-

ment, 2 vols., T. & T. Clark, 1874.

Hitzig, F., Vorlesungen über biblische Theologie und messianische Weissagungen des Alten Testaments, edited by Kneucker, Karlsruhe 1880.

Piepenbring, Ch., Théologie de l'Ancien Testament, Paris 1886, translated by G. H. Mitchell as Theology of the Old Testament,

New York 1893.

Kayser, August, Die Theologie des A. T. in ihrer geschichtlichen Entwicklung dargestellt, posthumously edited by Ed. Reuss, Strassburg 1886, 2nd edit. 1894.

RIEHM, EDUARD, Alttestamentliche Theologie, posthumously edited

by K. Pahncke, Halle 1889.

Toy, Crawford Howell, Judaism and Christianity, a sketch of the progress of thought from Old Testament to New Testament, Sampson Low, 1890.

Foster, R. V., Old Testament Studies, an outline of Old Testament

Theology, Chicago 1890.

Smend, R., Lehrbuch der alttest. Religionsgeschichte, see Sammlung theol. Lehrbücher, § 15 (3.).

DILLMANN, August, Handbuch der alttest, Theologie, posthumously edited by Rudolf Kittel, Leipsic 1895.

BENNETT, W. H., The Theology of the Old Testament, see Theological Educator, § 15 (3.)

(3.) On Parts of the Biblical Dogmatics of the Old Testament, especially Prophecy.

Hofmann, J. C. K. von, Weissagung und Erfüllung, Nördlingen 1841–1844. [Cleaves strongly everywhere to the place of pro-

phecy in the development of divine revelation.]

Lee, Sam., An Inquiry into the Nature, Progress, and End of Prophecy, in three books,—I. On the Covenant; II. An Exposition of the Visions of the Prophet Daniel; III. An Exposition of the Revelation of St. John, to which is prefixed a Preface and Introduction in three parts,—(1) On the principles of prophetical interpretation generally, and of those of Mr. Mede and his school in particular; (2) On those proposed by Dr. Todd, and on his application of these; (3) On those adopted in the following work, considered in connection with those of the early Church, Cambridge 1849.

Maitland, Chas., The Apostles' School of Prophetic Interpretation, with its History down to the present time, Longmans, 1849.
[Attempts to collect everything that the apostles taught on the

subject of unfulfilled prophecy.]

Davison, John, Discourses on Prophecy, in which are considered its Structure, Use, and Inspiration, being the substance of Twelve Sermons preached in the Chapel of Lincoln's Inn, in the Lecture

founded . . . by Warburton, 6th edit., Oxford 1856.

FAIRBAIRN, PATRICK, Prophecy viewed in respect to its Distinctive Nature, its Special Function, and Proper Interpretation, T. & T. Clark, 1856. [Investigates the principles of Biblical prophecy, and applies those principles to past and prospective fulfilments of prophecy.]

KÜPER, L., Das Priesterthum des alten Bundes, Berlin 1866; also, Das Prophetenthum des alten Bundes, übersichtlich dargestellt, Leipsic 1870. [Biblical studies, the latter dealing with prophecy in general, and then with each group of prophecies seriatim.]

Duhm, Bernh., Die Theologie der Propheten als Grundlage für die innere Entwickelungsgeschichte der israelitischen Religion, Bonn

1875.

Kuenen, A., The Prophets and Prophecy in Israel, a Historical and Critical Inquiry, translated from the Dutch by A. Milroy, Longmans, 1877. [Attempts to explain Old Testament prophecy without the supernatural.]

Koenig, F. E., Der Offenbarungsbegriff des Alten Testaments, 2 vols., Leipsic 1882. [A Biblical examination of the consciousness of the prophet, including that of the supernatural origin of his message.]

SMITH, W. R., The Prophets of Israel and their Place in History to the close of the Eighth Century B.C., eight Lectures, Edinburgh 1882; a new edition, with additional notes by Cheyne, 1895.

MAYBAUM, SIEGMUND, Die Entwickelung des israelitischen Prophetenthums, Berlin 1883. [Attempts to find the origin of Biblical prophecy in heathen soothsaying.] Baudissin, W. W., Die Geschichte des alttest. Priesterthums unter-

sucht, Leipsic 1889.

Duff, Archibald, Old Testament Theology, or the history of Hebrew religion from the year 800 B.C.: from 800 B.C. to Josiah 640 B.C., Black, 1891. [Mainly studies of Amos, Hosea, Isaiah, and Micah.]

Kirkpatrick, A. F., The Doctrine of the Prophets, Macmillan, 1892.

[Studies of each prophet.]

# (4.) On Jewish Belief, especially about the Time of the Birth of Christ.

Surenhusius, Gulielmus, Mischna, sive totius Hebræorum Juris Rituum, Antiquitatum, ac Legum Oralium Systema, etc., in 6

parts, Amsterdam 1698-1702.

Wotton, W., Miscellaneous Discourses relating to the Traditions and Usages of the Scribes and Pharisees in our Blessed Saviour Jesus Christ's Times, in 2 vols., 1718. [A useful guide in English to

the Mishna.]

Stehelin, J. P., The Traditions of the Jews, or the Doctrines and Expositions contained in the Talmud and other Rabbinical Writings, translated [and abridged] from the High-Dutch [of Buxtorf and Eisenmenger], to which is added a Preliminary Preface, or an Inquiry into the Origin, Progress, Authority, and Usefulness of those Traditions, wherein the Mystical Sense of the Allegories in the Talmud and other Writings of the Rabbins is explained, 2 vols., 1832, 1842. [Curious and useful; much more than a translation.]

ZUNZ, L., Die gottesdienstlichen Vorträge der Juden, historisch entwickelt, Berlin 1832; 2nd edit. by N. Brüll, Frankfort 1892.

[By a learned Jew.]

Gerörer, A. Fr., Geschichte des Urchristenthums, Stuttgart 1838,—
1st part, Das Jahrhundert des Heils, in 2 vols.; 2nd part, Die
heilige Sage, in 2 vols.; 3rd part, Das Heiligthum und die
Wahrheit. [The first two vols. present a summary of Jewish
belief at the birth of Christ; the other vols. contain references to
the Gospels and to Jesus.]

Sola, D. A. DE, and M. J. RAPHALL, Eighteen Treatises from the

Mishna, translated, 2nd edit. 1845.

M'Caul, Alex., The Old Paths, or a Comparison of the Principles and Doctrines of Modern Judaism with the Religion of Moses and

the Prophets, 1846.

ETHERIDGE, J. W., Jerusalem and Tiberias, Sora and Cordova, a Survey of the Religious and Scholastic Learning of the Jews, designed as an introduction to the study of Hebrew Literature, 12mo, Longmans, 1856. [Compact and erudite.]

DÖLLINGER, J. J. I., The Gentile and the Jew in the Courts of the

Temple of Christ, an Introduction to the History of Christianity; see § 26 (1.). [The second part gives an admirable portrait of

Jewish life and religion.

Langen, J., Das Judenthum in Paliistina zur Zeit Christi, ein Beitrag zur Offenbarungs- und Religions-Geschichte als Einleitung in die Theologie des Neuen Tests., Freiburg in Breisgau 1866. [A survey, first, of sources, canonical and uncanonical; and secondly, of the religious views of the Jews and their parties at the time of Christ.]

Schwab, Moïse, Le Talmud de Jérusalem traduit pour la première

fois, Paris, 11 vols. and index, 1871-1890.

Deutsch, Emanuel, Literary Remains, Murray, 1874. important article on the Talmud.] [An

REYNOLDS, H. R., John the Baptist, the Congregational Lecture for 1874, Hodder, 3rd edit. 1890. [A careful study of the Baptist as the point of union of the Old Testament and New.]

Drummond, Jas., The Jewish Messiah, a Critical History of the Messianic Idea among the Jews from the rise of the Macrabee to

the closing of the Talmud, Longmans, 1877.

Bacher, Wilhelm, Die Agada der babylonischen Amoriier, ein Beitrag zur Geschichte der Agada und zur Einleitung in den babylonischen Talmud, Strassburg 1878.

—— Die Agada der Tannaiten, 2 vols., Strassburg 1884–1889.

--- Die Agada der palästinensischen Amoräer, vol.i., Strassburg 1891.

[Works of a learned Jew.]

Weber, F., System der altsynagogalen palästinischen Theologie aus Targum, Midrasch und Talmud dargestellt, issued after the death of the author by Franz Delitzsch and Geo. Schnedermann, Leipsic 1880.

Wuensche, Aug., Bibliotheca Rabbinica, eine Sammlung alter Midraschim zum ersten Male ins Deutsche übertragen, Leipsic, 34

parts, 1880-1885, viz.:-

Midrasch Bereschit Rabba (Genesis).

- Schemot Rabba (Exodus). - Wazikra (Leviticus).

---- Bemidbar (Numbers).

- Debarim Rabba (Deuteronomy).

— Ruth Rabba. — Esther.

Midrasch Rabbi Mischle (Proverbs).

- Kohelet (Ecclesiastes).

- Schir-ha-Schirim (Song of Songs). Echa Rabbati (Lamentations).

Pesikta des Rab Kahana (the oldest Haggada in Palestine).

- Der babylonische Talmud in seinen haggadischen Bestandtheilen wortgetreu übersetzt und erläutert, 2 vols., Leipsic 1886–1894.

Stern, Ludwig, Die Vorschriften der Thora welche Israel in der Zerstreuung zu beobachten hat, ein Lehrbuch der Religion für Schule und Familie, Frankfort 1882. [Interesting for the light it throws upon past as well as upon present Jewish teaching.]

Stapfer, Edmond, La Palestine au Temps de Jésus-Christ, d'après le Nouveau Testament, l'historien Flavius Josephe et les Talmuds, avec deux tableaux, deux plans et une carte, Paris 1885, 5th

edit. 1891; translated as Palestine in Time of Christ, by Annie Harwood-Holmden, Hodder, 3rd edit. 1892.

Bennett, W. H., The Mishna as illustrating the Gospels, Cambridge 1884.

Pick, Bernhard, The Talmud, What it is, and What it knows about Jesus and His followers, 12mo, New York 1887.

STRACK, Einleitung in den Thalmud, 2nd edit. 1894.

MIELZINER, M., Introduction to the Talmud; historical and literary introduction, legal hermeneutics, Talmudical terminology and methodology, outlines of Talmudical ethics, key to the abbreviations used in the Talmud and its Commentaries, Cincinnati 1894.

Buechler, Adolf, Die Priester und der Cultus im letzten Jahrzehnt

des jerusalemischen Tempels, Vienna 1895.

## (5.) On New Testament Dogmatics as a Whole.

SCHMID, C. F., Biblische Theologie des Neuen Tests., edited by Weizsäcker, 2 vols., Stuttgart 1853, 5th edit. in 1 vol., Gotha 1886; translated from the 4th edit. by Venables as Biblical Theology of the New Testament, T. & T. Clark, 1870. Compare Bibliothek theol, Klassiker,  $\S$  15 (3.).

Reuss, Edouard, Histoire de la Théologie Chrétienne au siècle Apostolique, 3rd edit., revised and enlarged, 2 vols., Strassburg 1864; translated by Annie Harwood as History of Christian

Theology in the Apostolic Age, 2 vols., Hodder, 1872.

Weiss, B., Lehrbuch der Biblischen Theologie des Neuen Tests., Berlin 1868, 6th edit. 1895; translated from the 3rd edition by David Eaton as Biblical Theology of the New Testament, 2 vols., T. & T. Clark, 1882.

IMMER, A., Theologie des Neuen Testaments, Bern 1877.

Peleiderer, Otto, Das Urrhristenthum, seine Schriften und Lehren, in geschichtlichen Zusammenhang, Berlin 1887.

Nösgen, C. F., Geschichte der neutest. Offenbarung, 2 vols., Munich 1891, 1893. The first vol. gives the history of Jesus Christ; the

second, that of the apostolic message.]

Beyschlag, Willibald, Neutestamentliche Theologie oder geschichtliche Darstellung der Lehren Jesu und des Urchristenthums nach den neutest. Quellen, 2 vols., Halle 1891, 1892, 2nd edit. 1895; translated by Neil Buchanan as New Testament Theology or Historical Account of the Teaching of Jesus and of Primitive Christianity according to the New Testament Sources, 2 vols., T. & T. Clark, 1895.

Bovon, Jules, Théologie du Nouveau Testament, 2 vols., Lausanne 1893, 1894. [In 1st vol., The Life and Teaching of Jesus: in

2nd, The Teaching of the Apostles.

Fulliquet, Georges, La Pensie Religieuse dans le Nouveau Testament, étude de théologie biblique, Paris 1893.

ADENEY, W. F., The Biblical Theology of the New Testament, see Theological Educator, § 15 (3.).

# (6.) On Parts of New Testament Dogmatics, especially the several Types of Teaching.

Note.—Some of the books given in § 63 (4.) also deal with New Testament types of dogmatic teaching.

Usteri, L., Entwickelung des paulinischen Lehrbegriffs in seinen Verhältnisse zur biblischen Dogmatik des N. T., Zürich 1824, 6th edit. 1851.

Frommann, Karl, Der johanneische Lehrbegriff in seinen Verhältnisse zur gesammten biblisch-christlichen Lehre, Leipsic, 12mo, 1839.

Köstlin, K. R., Der Lehrbegriff des Evangelium und der Briefe Johannes, Berlin 1843.

Weiss, B., Der petrinische Lehrbegriff, Leipsic 1855.

—— Der Johanneische Lehrbegriff in seinen Grundzügen untersucht, Berlin 1862.

Riehm, E. K. A., Der Lehrbegriff des Hebrüerbriefes dargestellt und mit verwandten Lehrbegriffen verglichen, 2 parts, Ludwigsburg 1858, 1859.

Schmidt, W. G., Der Lehrgehalt des Jakobusbriefes, Leipsic 1869.

Irons, W. J., Bampton Lecture, 1870, see § 15 (3.).

PFLEIDERER, O., Der Paulinismus, Beitrag zur Geschichte der urchristlichen Theologie, Leipsic 1873, translated by Ed. Peters under the title Paulinism, a Contribution to the History of Primitive Christian Theology, 2 vols., Williams & Norgate, 1877, —vol. i., Exposition of Paul's doctrine; vol. ii., History of Paulinism in the Primitive Church.

— Lectures on the Influence of the Apostle Paul on the Development of Christianity, Hibbert Lectures for 1885, translated by

J. F. Smith, Williams & Norgate, 1885.

Gebhardt, Hermann, Der Lehrbegriff der Apokalypse, Gotha 1873, translated by J. Jefferson under the title of The Doctrine of the Apocalypse and its Relation to the Doctrine of the Gospel and Epistles of St. John, T. & T. Clark, 1878.

OPITZ, H., Das System des Paulus nach seinen Briefen, Gotha 1873. SABATIER, A., L'Apôtre Paul, esquisse d'une histoire de sa pensée, 2nd edit., Paris 1881; translated by A. M. Hellier as The Apostle Paul, a sketch of the development of his doctrine, Hodder, 1891.

CLARKE, J. FREEMAN, The Ideas of the Apostle Paul, translated into their modern equivalents, 12mo, Boston 1884. [Unitarian.]

Lorenz, Otto, Das Lehrsystem im Römerbrief, Breslau 1884.

Franke, A. H., Das Alte Testament bei Johannes, ein Beitrag zur Erklärung und Beurtheilung der johanneischen Schriften,

Göttingen 1885.

Wendt, H. H., Die Lehre Jesu, 2 parts, Göttingen 1886, 1890; the 2nd part has been translated by John Wilson as The Teaching of Jesus, in 2 vols., T. & T. Clark, 1892. [The first part is a study in higher criticism, on the evangelical sources of the teaching of Jesus.]

Grau, R. F., Das Selbstbewusstsein Jesu, Nördlingen 1887.

Baldensperger, Das Selbstbewusstsein Jesu im Lichte der messianischen Hoffnungen seiner Zeit, Strassburg 1888.

Bruce, A. B., The Kingdom of God, or Christ's teaching according to the Synoptic Gospels, T. & T. Clark, 1889, 6th edit. 1895.

Matheson, Geo., Spiritual Development of St. Paul. Blackwood. 1890.

Stevens, Geo. B., The Pauline Theology, a study of the origin and correlation of the doctrinal teachings of the Apostle Paul, Dickinson, 1892.

— The Johannine Theology, a study of the doctrinal contents of the Gospel and Epistles of the Apostle John, Dickinson, 1894.

Koehler, H., Von der Welt zum Himmelreich oder die johanneische

Darstellung des Werkes Jesu Christi synoptisch geprüft und ergänzt, Halle 1892.

Cone, Orello, The Gospel and its Earliest Interpretations, a study of the teaching of Jesus and its doctrinal transformations in the New Testament, Putnam, 1893. [Unitarian.]

Schnedermann, Georg, Jesu Verkündigung und Lehre vom Reiche Gottes in ihrer geschichtlichen Bedeutung, Leipsic 1893 and 1895. Ménégoz, Eugène, La Théologie de l'Epître aux Hébreux, Paris 1894.

## (7.) On the Biblical Doctrine of God.

Note.—Only Biblical monographs are mentioned here, and in the following pages; large Biblical examination of the several doctrines will be found in the books of § 84.

Weber, F., Vom Zorne Gottes, ein biblisch-theologisches Versuch, mit prolegomena von F. Delitzsch, Erlangen 1862.

Wittichen, C., Die Idee Gottes als des Vaters, ein Beitrag zur biblischen Theologie hauptsächlich der synoptischen Reden Jesu, Göttingen 1865.

Morgan, James, The Scripture Testimony to the Holy Spirit, T. & T. Clark, 1865.

Zahn, D. A., Das Gesetz Gottes nach der Lehre des Apostel Paulus, Halle 1876.

Baethgen, Friedrich, Beiträge zur semitischen Religionsgeschichte. Der Gott Israels und die Götter der Heiden, Berlin 1888.

Redford, R. A., Vox Dei, the Dortrine of the Spirit as it is set forth in the Scriptures of the Old and New Testaments, Nisbet, 1889.

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### BIBLICAL ETHICS.

§ 66.

DEFINITION, PROBLEM, DIVISION, AND HISTORY OF BIBLICAL ETHICS.

A third theological science resulting from the application of a scientific exegesis is Biblical Ethics. By Biblical ethics is meant the moral science of the Bible. For centuries the moral doctrines of the Bible were regarded as a branch of Biblical doctrine in general, and were treated as a section of doctrinal theology; but for some time now it has been customary to treat the two subjects apart, ethical doctrine being so very definite a branch of Biblical truth; and there is certainly something to be said for the separation. What pertains to the right action of the will may certainly be placed in a different category to what pertains to the right action of the intellect. Moral law is different from intellectual truth. Biblical ethics is therefore the moral doctrines of the Bible treated scientifically. As such it is distinguished from philosophic ethics. Philosophical ethics finds its source, its forms, and its authority in the moral nature of man; Biblical ethics finds its source, its forms, and its authority in the Bible. Philosophical ethics is built up by an examination of the contents of consciousness; Biblical ethics by an examination of the contents of Scripture. There is an ethical system of the Bible, as there is of Mohammed or Buddha, and Biblical ethics extracts from an objective source, the Bible, what the Bible has to teach upon the science of morals.

The PROBLEM, then, of Biblical ethics is to inquire what the Bible has to say upon the great ethical problems, viz. upon the theory of right and wrong, the theory of the supreme end of life, and the theory of the moral nature of man. Alas! nothing like an adequate investigation has yet been conducted into these several points. To make no other criticism, no book has yet appeared which keeps in mind the development of ethical doctrine in the Bible.

Nevertheless it is evident that Biblical ethics, like Biblical dogmatics, may be divided into an analytical and a synthetical part, the former having to do with the successive phases of ethical teaching in the Bible, and the latter with the organic unity of those phases. The scheme would again run somewhat as follows:—

Biblical Ethics is divided into-

- I. An analytical part, subdividing into-
  - 1. The ethics of the Old Testament.
    - a. In the Law.
    - b. In the Prophets.
  - 2. The ethics of the New Testament, viz.-
    - $\alpha$ . The ethics of Christ.
    - b. The ethics of the Apostles, viz.-
      - (1) Of Peter, James, and Jude.
      - (2) Of Paul.
      - (3) Of John.
- II. A synthetical part, subdividing into-
  - 1. The Biblical doctrine of the moral nature of man
    - a. In his unregenerate state.
    - b. In his regenerate state.
  - 2. The Biblical doctrine of the moral standard of man.
  - 3. The Biblical doctrine of the moral end of man.

It can scarcely be said that Biblical ethics has had a HISTORY as yet. Its history is beginning. Biblical and Christian ethics are not sufficiently differentiated in the present stage of inquiry, nor are Biblical dogmatics and Biblical ethics.

## § 67.

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# DIVISION IV.

## ECCLESIASTICAL THEOLOGY.

§ 68.

NAME, DEFINITION, AND PROBLEM OF ECCLESIASTICAL THEOLOGY.

WE now come to the fourth division of theology, which we have called Ecclesiastical Theology. As has been previously stated, the NAME of this division has been adopted because it is more precise than the more common name of historical theology. Just as the term Biblical theology has been preferred to exegetical theology, because the former technicality has a more precise connotation, so the name historical theology has been discarded for ecclesiastical theology, despite the undesirable associations of the word ecclesiastical, because historical theology is too wide a term, seeing that any branch of theology may be treated historically. The sources of theological science, as we have seen, are nature, heathenism, the Bible, and the Christian Church; and it is prudent to keep the lines between these sources distinct.

Ecclesiastical Theology, then, is the science of the history of the Christian Church. It is a science, an accurate and ordered statement of facts and the principles they involve; it is a science of history, that is, it investigates a development, it follows an unfolding phase of the world's life, it undertakes by using all the accessible means, documentary, critical, and

constructive, fittingly employed in such research, to present a synthesis of all the facts of a life-story; and it is a science of the history of the Christian Church, of that religious community planted by God in the world to receive and to impart His gracious influence. Strictly speaking, the church includes all the visible societies of Christians, or rather includes all those amongst those visible societies who receive and radiate the saving power of Christ. Practically, however, the history of the Christian Church is the history of the various Christian societies, the so-called visible churches, a practical definition which is not likely to lead astray so long as the idea of the church universal is retained in mind.

From such a definition, the relation between the scientific study of common history and the scientific study of the history of the Christian Church immediately follows. Ordinary history pursues the course of societies of men as men; Church history pursues the course of societies of Christian men. The latter is a branch of the former, and although their spheres sometimes coincide, man as divinely influenced still being man, it is perfectly feasible and highly important to adopt a separate treatment, the history of the race in its wide human relations being one thing, and its law of progress one, whilst the history of the race in its Christian relations is quite another thing, and its law of progress altogether different. Our definition also marks the distinction between ecclesiastical theology and the other branches of theological science. The facts presented by the Christian Church are not the same as those presented by the Bible, or by Christian doctrine, or by the pastoral office, although some sections of each of these three divisions seem to partake of the nature of cross divisions. If, however, Biblical history seems to be a branch of ecclesiastical theology, this is only when the difference between the originating Apostolic Age and the assimilating post-Apostolic Ages is forgotten. Again, although the history of Christian doctrine may appear to be a branch of doctrinal theology, this can only be when attention is no longer given to the historical aspect of this branch of ecclesiastical theology. It is one thing to state beliefs as they have been held by Christians at

different times, and another thing to present beliefs, or to endeavour to present them, in a reasoned form irrespective of sect or age. So too, it is true, the pastoral function may be studied as it has appeared in the past, and this study would be a part of ecclesiastical theology; but pastoral theology is the science of the facts presented by the pastorate irrespective of time. It is the evolutional element, it is time, which constitutes the inalienable differentia of ecclesiastical theology.

The PROBLEM, then, of this branch of theology is to give a true and connected account of the development of the Christian Church in all its multifarious work and thought, to reproduce from all extant sources of information the story of the manifold life of the Christian Church, its struggles and its victories, its thinkers and its antagonists, its growth within and its proselytising without, its deeds of mercy, its self-government, its rebellions, its advances, its retrogressions. The problem is not easy. In prosecuting this problem, two preliminary steps at least are indispensable. On the one hand, it is essential to grasp here, as in all history, the wide-reaching and influential distinction between the original sources of the history of the Christian Church, and those sources when elaborated into history; and on the other hand, it is necessary to prepare oneself by some familiarity with certain auxiliary sciences. Only when the sources have been carefully distinguished from what is not original, and when some apprenticeship has been served in the prosecution of preparatory studies, can the course of actual development be successfully traced. The sitter must be isolated, and the glass and apparatus must be put into position, before the photograph itself can be taken.

One important step towards the solution of the problem of ecclesiastical theology, it has just been said, is to distinguish accurately between the original sources of information and those sources as elaborated into histories. The credibility of the original and the elaborated sources is so different. Neander, for example, writes a history of the Christian Church,—what is its trustworthiness? Manifestly, it is only trustworthy so far as it represents the original sources critically weighed. In fact, the value of such a book

depends upon four things,-its representation of the original sources, its criticism of those original sources, its assimilation of those sources as critically weighed, and its literary ability. Its facts cannot be more extensive than the original sources critically estimated, nor can its credibility. The crucial question as regards all second-hand narratives always is, whether they are warranted by a judicious use of the extant sources. Their imagination may be fine, their style brilliant, their composition classic; but if they exceed the testimony of the original sources, they are embellished, and if they fall short of that testimony, they are meagre. The two tests of elaborated history are,—Is it accurate, and is it adequate? The two tests of original sources are,—Are they contemporary, and are they faithful? Let not, however, too restricted a view be taken as to what constitutes original sources. They are to be found in all monuments and records, in all extant monuments, whether buildings, or pictures, or furniture, or tombs, or sculptured inscriptions, or the buried cemeteries of the past, and in all records, whether the acts of councils, or popes, or martyrs, the rules of monasteries, the laws of courts, liturgies, creeds, the extant writings of the Fathers or of their numerous successors in the great field of Christian literature. A good division of these original sources, showing at once their nature and their variety, is into three classes, viz. antiquities such as records and monuments, narratives of eve-witnesses or contemporaries, and histories which have been composed from sources no longer extant.

A second indispensable step towards the solution of ecclesiastical theology is, it has also been said, a sufficient acquaintance with several auxiliary sciences. Of those aids which pertain to a liberal education, and of the several philological aids, necessary helps as both classes of aids are, nothing needs be said here. Attention is only called to those aids which facilitate the study of history as such. They may be divided into the specific and the general. The specific aids facilitate the comprehension of individual facts presented by the sources, embracing such subjects as the laws of criticism and the facts of geography, chronology, and statistics. The general aids assist in appreciating the testimony of the

sources as a whole, and embody the history of the world, of the epoch, of law and art, philosophy and literature, sound general views upon which subjects render valuable service in coming to healthy and accurate conclusions upon ecclesiastical theology.

Some acquaintance having been formed with each of these lines of pursuit,—and the more careful the acquaintance the more probable are correct ultimate conclusions, the problem of ecclesiastical theology may be attacked, the accurate re-presentation of any or all the phases of the life of the Christian Church. Here again completeness and method will smooth the task undertaken. Remembering, for example, the various aspects under which the Christian Church may be viewed, it is desirable to distinctly recognise that a tolerable view of any period of the course of the Church will only be attained when, on the one hand, the history is presented of the Church in its external relations with the state and with the unregenerate world, and on the other hand, when there is also given the picture of the Church in its internal relations—the character and work of its prominent members, the outline of its specific doctrines, the main features of its practice, the peculiarities of its sects, the points of its heresies, and the grounds of its schisms. What further needs be said upon the problem of ecclesiastical theology will appear when we trace the outline of the entire Let us turn now to the value of a study of ecclesiastical theology.1

## § 69.

#### UTILITY OF THE SCIENCE OF ECCLESIASTICAL THEOLOGY.

In the excellent lectures upon the introduction to the study of ecclesiastical history with which the late Arthur Penrhyn Stanley prefaced his well-known *Lectures on the Eastern Church*, and which every student of ecclesiastical

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Much valuable aid upon the principles of historical study in general, and therefore of ecclesiastical history, will be found in Edward A. Freeman's Methods of Historical Study, Macmillan 1886

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theology should read, the Dean commenced his discussion by an apt quotation from the *Pilgrim's Progress*: "When Christian the pilgrim," he writes, "halted by the highway-side at the palace of which the name was Beautiful, he was told that he should not depart till they had shown him the rarities of that place. And first they had him into the study, where they showed him records of the greatest antiquity, in which was the pedigree of the Lord of the Hill, the Son of the Ancient of Days. . . . Here also were more fully recorded the acts that He had done, and the names of many hundreds that He had taken into His service; and how He had placed them in such habitations, that could neither by length of days nor decays of nature be dissolved. Then they read to him some of the worthy acts that some of His servants had done; as how they had subdued kingdoms, wrought righteousness, obtained promises, stopped the mouths of lions, quenched the violence of fire, escaped the edge of the sword, out of weakness were made strong, waxed valiant in fight, and turned to flight the armies of the aliens. Then they read in another part of the records of the house, how willing their Lord was to receive into His favour any, even any, though they in time past had offered great affronts to His person and proceedings. Here also were several other histories of other famous things, of all which Christian had a view, as of things both ancient and modern, together with prophecies and predictions of things that have their certain accomplishment, both to the dread and amazement of enemies and the comfort and solace of pilgrims." As Stanley justly remarks, these simple sentences, telling in homely language of the life of Christ and His followers, vividly if briefly illustrate some of the advantages of the study of ecclesiastical theology. That study strengthens action as well as thought.

For a study of ecclesiastical theology is of supereminent value as a branch of religious education, as well as of very high utility in a theological education. It is with the latter point we are mainly concerned, but a few words upon the former, the importance of a study of the history of the Christian Church in religious education, may be permitted, and for two reasons, viz. the light thrown upon the nature of

ecclesiastical theology itself, and the practical guidance suggested. He only will successfully prosecute theology who has first striven after religion with some success, and ecclesiastical theology matures religion.

And, in the FIRST place, under the religious as well as the theological regard, let it be noticed how in pursuing the history of the Christian Church, we are falling in with the spirit of the age. One of the distinctive endowments of this century is a keen sense of the practical value of historical research. This is pre-eminently the century of scientific history. Instead of being regarded as necessary to polite literature simply, history is deemed a part of exact knowledge with important practical bearings. Not that such works as Macaulay's famous History, or Clarendon's, or Gibbon's, are undervalued, but, partisan as they are, they have come to be thought more interesting as literature than as history. Scientific history aims at truth above all things, at an unprejudiced exhibition of the real character of the men, and times, and things of which it treats, and it is this dispassionate conception of history which has been specially formed and prosecuted in recent years. As science of all kinds has come to be enthusiastically investigated, a large need has come to be felt for accurate knowledge as to what other ages as well as our own have known and done. Thinkers have become conscious that familiarity with other times would have both a steadying and enlarging effect; and as a consequence the history of all branches of study has been diligently pursued. So fully, indeed, has this conception of the value of history in the formation of opinion laid hold of the mind of our times, that it has become almost a universal practice to preface the study of any science by a brief sketch of its history. Life has been realised to be an evolution, a growth, a development, and hence a knowledge of the past has been seen to be as indispensable to a practical knowledge of the present, as to a wise preparedness for the future. And a more enlarging and steadying influence than that of historical knowledge it is difficult to conceive. Removed from the agitation and bias of the present, questions intertwined with all the misleading and limiting prepossessions of birth and

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culture are viewed in the cold light of an indifferent past. Thus the eye is at once quickened and quieted by distance. All those side-lights which the retina is too rigid to convey in its intense and concentrated, possibly even passionate gaze, within the near limit of vision, exercise their adjusting effects at a distance, and a more accurate image is formed, neither inclined nor inverted, not too bright nor too dark, and free at any rate from the musca volitantes of a disordered spleen. A certain distance from the eye is always necessary to clear vision, or, to change the figure, we may say that the critical study of history enlarges like foreign travel, augmenting the narrow though invaluable experiences of a single observer by the superadded experiences, so far as they are assimilable, of many centuries of thinkers and workers. These remarks are especially true of the critical study of the history of the Christian Church. There is a proverbial bitterness apt to be imported into religious discussions, and hence the value of the steadying effect of historical study. There is a proverbial narrowness about the religious partisan, which the enlarging effect of a knowledge of other times and epochs best corrects.

Secondly, a good religious education is not complete without some acquaintance with the great subject of ecclesiastical theology, for another reason. It is very salutary to be brought into contact with the leaders of Christian thought, sentiment, and activity. Religious biography is an invaluable branch of religious education. Great men, as Emerson puts it, are "our nobler brothers, though one in blood," and we may learn much from their mistakes and achievements, their brilliant inspirations or their paralysing narrownesses. "Study the lives," says Stanley, in the lectures previously mentioned, "study the thoughts, and hymns, and prayers, study the deathbeds of good men. They are the salt, not only of the world, but of the Church. In them we see, close at hand, what on the public stage of history we see through every kind of distorted medium and deceptive refraction. In them we can trace the history if not of the Catholic Church, at least of the communion of saints. The Acta Sanctorum were literally, as a great French historian [Guizot] has said,

the only light, moral and intellectual, of the centuries, from the seventh to the ninth, which may without exaggeration be called 'the dark ages.' 'Their glories,' it has been well said [by Bishop Wilson], 'shine far beyond the limits of their daily walk in life; their odours are wafted across the borders of unfriendly societies; their spiritual seed is borne away, and takes root and bears manifold in fields far distant from the gardens of the Lord where they were planted.' We have to be on our guard against the proverbial exaggerations of biographers; we have to disentangle fable and legend from truth and fact; but the reward is worth the risk; the work will be its own reward. It is well known that, amidst the trials which beset Henry Martyn on his voyage to India, the study in which he found his chief pleasure and profit was in the kindly notices of ancient saints which form the redeeming points of Milner's History of the Church. 'I love' (so he writes in his diary) 'to converse, as it were, with those holy bishops and martyrs, with whom, I hope, through grace, to spend a happy eternity. . . . The example of the Christian saints in the early ages has been a source of sweet reflection to me. . . . The holy love and devout meditations of Augustine and Ambrose I delight to think of. . . . No uninspired sentence ever affected me so much as that of the historian, that to believe, to suffer, and to love, was the primitive taste.' What he so felt and expressed may be, and has been, felt by others. Such biographies are the common, perhaps the only common, literature alike of rich and poor. Hearts, to whom even the Bible speaks in vain, have by such works been roused to a sense of duty and holiness." The fact is that let a man, whatever he do, but do it greatly, especially let his greatness be seen in goodness, and we cannot help sitting at his feet to learn as well as to listen. Lives of great men, as Longfellow reminds us, bring to our remembrance the possibilities of our own lives. Let a man be religious, let him have grappled with the deeper problems of life, let him have answered for himself those profound questions as to whence he came, whither he is going, what are his present and future hopes, let him moreover be willing to spend his life in the propagation and

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attestation of his belief, and such mental struggles and spiritual victory will have a magnetic hold upon the human mind and heart. Christian biography always commands reverential attention.

A THIRD conviction which it is well for general religious culture to permit ecclesiastical theology to strengthen is the supreme import of New Testament Christianity. The history of the Church is a history of approximation, more or less close, to the exalted teaching and practice of the first disciples of Jesus. There is a philosophical explanation for this. At first sight it seems perfectly easy to give expression in words of the intellect to what we apprehend intuitively; but it is really no more easy to embody in words what we directly perceive than it is in acts. The fact is that all science, with its infinite labour, with its conflicts of hypotheses, with its advances and its retrogressions, its straight march and its circuitous approaches, is really an endeavour to give intellectual expression to what we have intuitive impressions of. Any healthy eye can see, but the labours of generations and of the most acute minds in those generations have not yet solved the mystery of sight, or, in other words, given adequate intellectual expression to the phenomena of vision. So is it in the religious world. The Apostolic Age was the age of intuitive religious knowledge. Men felt the truth rather than thought it; the truth was known as by a divine inspiration. All subsequent ages have it as their task to formulate in words and lives what the apostles knew, or saw, or felt, whatever word we use to express intuitive apprehension of truth. Thus it comes about that every age is a mirror which in some degree reflects the Apostolic Age with more or less clearness, and the features of that great formative time stand out the more sharply the more intimate is our knowledge of Church history,—one epoch throwing one element of apostolic teaching into strong relief, and another epoch giving prominence to another element. So also it happens that, in the aberrations of intellectual and ethical endeavour, in the wanderings of thought or of practice, the Apostolic Age stands out as the great corrective. So much might have been anticipated from philosophical considerations. And turning

to the actual course of events, it is a matter of fact that there is an evidently increasing appreciation of the gist and the bearings of the New Testament as time advances, just as it is also manifest that every great forward movement in doctrine or practice throughout the years of the Church has always been characterised by a more or less conscious return to the primitive records. Augustine meets Pelagius with weapons forged in the armoury of the Apostle Paul; St. Bernard gives his nights and his days to the study of St. John; the treatises of Aguinas bristle with Scriptural quotations; Luther conceives an entire change of standpoint by personal contact with the Gospels and Epistles; and it is hardly needful to recall how Whitfield and Wesley found their inspiration in the narratives of the first Christian evangelists. The more intimate the acquaintance with the phases of the life of the Church, the more splendid and clear is the light which gathers round the head of Christ and His apostles.

And a FOURTH reason why Church history might advisably form part even of an ordinary religious education is the opportunity thus afforded of studying dispassionately great questions of perennial interest. The same fundamental problems appeal to every thinking mind, and it is of incalculable value to us if we can by any means regard these problems at a distance from ourselves. No man knows his own failings or his own virtues, and it is only as we see ourselves reflected in others that we are able to form some sort of estimate of what we are. "Every man," says Oliver Wendell Holmes, with some causticity, "is really three persons: what he really is, what he thinks he is, and what other people think him;" and naturally that estimate is the more likely to be genuine which compounds the three opinions. So also nothing is more difficult, nor more indispensable, than to obtain a clear and rational opinion of what is of supreme and what of light importance in our creed and conduct. Here, again, ecclesiastical theology lends its aid. Many opinions are seen to have a psychological basis merely, and to be the consequence of temperament rather than conviction. The innate conservatism of humanity appears, and its sluggishness in apprehending new views, whether true or false. Imperfections and failings UTILITY. 435

are seen to be inseparable from human life. Especially do we see how, to again quote Dean Stanley, "every Church partakes of the faults as well as the excellences of its own age and country; that each is fallible as human nature itself; that each is useful as a means, none perfect as an end. To find Christ or anti-Christ exclusively in any one community is against charity, and against humility, and above all, against the facts of history." Further, as the Dean continues, it will be vain to argue, on abstract grounds, for the absolute and indefeasible necessity of some practice or ceremony, of which we have learned from history that there is no instance for one, two, three, or four hundred years, in the most honoured ages of the Church. It will be vain to denounce as subversive of Christianity doctrines which we have known from biography to have been held by the very saints, martyrs, and reformers we are constantly applauding. Opinions and views which, in a familiar and modified form, waken in us no shock of surprise, or which even command our high admiration, will often for the first time be truly apprehended when we see them in the ritual or the creed of some rival, or remote, or barbarous Church, which is but the caricature and exaggeration of that which we ourselves hold. Practices which we insist on retaining or repudiating, as if they involved the very essence of the Catholic faith, or of the Reformation, will appear less precious or less dangerous, as the case may be, in the eyes of the respective disputants, if history shows us clearly that we thereby make ourselves, on the one hand, more papal than the Pope, more Roman than Rome; on the other hand, more Lutheran than Luther, more Genevan than Calvin. We find great controversialists tearing to shreds arguments we have been unwise enough to advance, and defending in a manner most exemplary opinions which we have thought inane. In a word, a study of ecclesiastical theology accentuates the necessary in belief and practice, and depreciates the accessory.

But if there are many reasons why a study of ecclesiastical theology is of value as a means of ordinary religious culture, there are also many reasons why some acquaintance with ecclesiastical theology is absolutely indispensable to a sound theological education. Doubtless what is useful in religious culture generally is peculiarly useful in the religious culture of the preacher; and religious biography, a rooted conviction of the importance of New Testament Christianity, and an acquaintance with the controversial struggles of the past, all have a high homiletical worth. But there are additional reasons why ecclesiastical theology should be studied with care by the theological student.

For, IN THE FIRST PLACE, ecclesiastical theology accentuates the exalted position Biblical theology occupies in the development of mankind as compared with natural or ethnic theology. What Paul said with so firm an assurance, the student of ecclesiastical theology may repeat with stronger emphasis. The gospel of Christ has throughout history shown itself "the power of God unto salvation." Despite its occasional aberration, its singular excrescences, its abortive flowers, its dead branches, the great tree of the Biblical faith has been for the healing of the nations. The miracle of the Apostolic Age has had many a repetition, and in all years numbered after our Lord, not only have individual souls testified that they have been snatched as brands from the burning, as the records tell us, but a sensualised world has become the centre of a restored life.

SECONDLY, the theologian can ill spare the sense of the unity of the faith which ecclesiastical theology gives. It is, alas! in some respects, too frightfully true, as Dr. Arnold wrote, that instead of a noble and beautiful "progress of the spirit of light and love, dispelling the darkness of folly, and subduing into one divine harmony all the jarring elements of evil," we have "no steady, unwavering advance of heavenly spirits, but one continually interrupted, checked, diverted from its course, driven backward; as of men possessed by some bewildering spell, wasting their strength upon imaginary obstacles, hindering each other's progress and their own, by stopping to analyse and dispute about the nature of the sun's light till all were blinded by it, instead of thankfully using its aid to show them the right path onward." Nevertheless, despite the horrible diversity, despite the sanguinary conflicts over human additions to the one divine creed, the apostle's words receive from the UTILITY. 437

history of the Church an ever augmenting reiteration, "One Lord, one Faith, one Baptism." The student of the controversies of the Church is enabled to see with increasing clearness that there is a Catholic faith, and to delineate its features.

THIRDLY, the theologian is also better equipped for his special work of teaching who has been taught by a study of the history of the Church, how, amidst the endless diversities of belief and practice which have obtained, there has been nevertheless a steady progress on the whole in intellectual and moral apprehension. As in all human things, progress has not been one unswerving advance. Hegel's law more nearly describes it - progress by a conflict of opposites. In the investigation of the genesis and growth of rites and doctrines, creeds and ecclesiastical organisations, Church is seen to differ from Church, creed from creed, confession from confession, age from age; and ecclesiastical history, like profane, is apparently little else than a narrative of civil and foreign wars, coronations and depositions, rebellions, revolutions, reformations, and intrigues. But the progressive nature of theology and religion also becomes manifest. Doctrine, says ecclesiastical theology, has been held with a grasp increasingly firmer, wiser, and more assured. Battles over rival theories, the accession of one leader of thought or the fall of another, heresies and defences, assaults and apologies, have all contributed in the long-run to the general advance. And progress has taken place, it has come to be acknowledged, in a twofold direction, -in the grasp of single doctrines and in those readjustments of the ensemble of doctrines which, so intimately is truth interwoven with truth, every smallest acquisition has invariably necessitated. Indeed, opposition and inquiry have transformed vague feelings and hesitant expressions into consistent intellectual statements, whilst these, receiving more and more precise limitations, have in their turn reacted upon the whole of doctrine, and evoked stricter cohesion, more rigid inference, more subtle analysis. Let the doctrine of the Trinity, for example, as it appears in the Apostles' Creed, be compared with that which is formulated in the Athanasian, or, better still, let the doctrine of the Atonement of the Apostolic Formula be compared with that of Melanchthon's Confessio Augustana, and the progress furthered by the wrestling of ages will be appreciated. What earlier teachers have felt as matter of sentiment and personal experience, later expositors have known as the invaluable possession of the reason; and how priceless an inheritance that man leaves to his kind who gives adequate expression to the unexpressed, whether poet, painter, architect, statesman, lawyer, or theologian, who shall measure? In fact, history teaches that it is with the divine revelation in the Scriptures as with the divine revelation in nature; the Scriptures are an inexhaustible mine of precious ore, with tiny nuggets for every one, but with large veins of wealth, ever more rich and ramifying, for him who delves the deepest and the most persistently with the best instruments. And ecclesiastical theology attests a progress in practice as well as in doctrine. There are sins once common in Church life which have died out, and the general aspect of ecclesiastical society, still far from ideal, evidently improves as the years roll on.

Yet again, FOURTHLY, it is of extreme importance for the leaders of Christian thought to recognise with distinctness the peculiar theological problems of the present and the immediate future. We are inheritors of the past; we are progenitors of the future. We occupy a fixed position in time, and, whilst enjoying the fruits of the labours of our ancestors, we have to carry on those labours a few steps farther. There are peculiar dangers which beset our age, bequeathed by the ages before us; there are peculiar duties which devolve upon us, also the consequence of our place in time; there are special enigmas which we alone in the history of the world have been fitted to solve. The important thing is to realise with accuracy the task that is set us. A study of ecclesiastical theology can best impart that realisation, enabling us to see to what point the past has brought us, and whither the next movement must take place. Consider, for example, the momentous questions of eschatology; they are especially problems for this age, and he only will study them wisely who, knowing the past, is able to avoid past pitfalls, and to profit by past successes.

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LASTLY, acquaintance with ecclesiastical theology is, as will be subsequently seen, an indispensable preliminary to any satisfactory investigation of systematic Christian doctrine. Data for doctrine and doctrine are not identical. The Bible presents us with data; ecclesiastical theology presents us with attempts to formulate doctrines from these Biblical data. It is therefore as imperative to study ecclesiastical theology as it is to formulate data into doctrine. To ignore the results attained by the many generations of Christian thinkers would be the greatest folly as well as the greatest egotism. It would be more; it would be deliberate rejection of divine guidance. The promised Paraclete does lead the Church in His own good time into all truth. The Romish communion is not wrong in declaring that the gift of the Holy Spirit dwells in the Church; its error lies in its narrow definition of the Church. It must necessarily, therefore, form part of any inquiry as to what is Christian doctrine, to ask what has been thought to be Christian doctrine. But the point will arise again when we deal with the method of doctrinal theology.

## § 70.

HISTORY OF THE STUDY OF ECCLESIASTICAL THEOLOGY.

We have just spoken of the spiritual progress which ecclesiastical theology attests. It also attests a scientific progress. Like all the branches of theological science, ecclesiastical theology has certainly had a marked progress on the whole, together with intercalated periods of stagnation or retrogression. Strictly speaking, however, this progress does not date farther back than the Reformation.

PRIOR TO THE REFORMATION, we find materials for ecclesiastical theology, rather than ecclesiastical theology itself. It is true that Eusebius, by his famous history, in ten books, dealing with the time between the Incarnation and the year 324 A.D., won the title of the Father of Church History, but the title is somewhat misapplied. So much of the history of

Eusebius was contemporary with the events he described, and, even when this was not the case, so much of what he wrote was a compilation from long perished sources, that his history is rather to be called annals, and classed with the original sources of Church history, than with elaborated histories. The same is true of the works of Socrates, Sozomen, and Theodoret, who wrote in the fifth century, and of Theodorus and Evagrius, who wrote in the sixth, each of whom took up the thread of the narrative where his predecessor had dropped it. Similarly, from the sixth to the sixteenth centuries, with the exception of compilations from Eusebius and his successors, the history of the Church was little studied as such. Many chronicles were written, it is true,—stories of the Church in particular nations, narratives of individual monastic orders, biographies of single popes, bishops, missionaries, and saints, but all these books were again rather materials for history than history itself. The mapping of the entire course of the Christian Church was foreign to the mental attitude of the time.

AFTER THE REFORMATION, we first pass to a complete Church history, to a full presentation of what we have called ecclesiastical theology, with the famous so-called Magdeburg Centuries, projected by Matthias Flacius Illyricus, and published, with the assistance of ten coadjutors, from 1559-1574, in thirteen folio volumes. Where was the Protestant Church before the Reformation, was the common Romanist question, and in these Centuries was given the Protestant reply. As the title suggests, this history treated of the church in Centuries, each century being considered under sixteen heads, viz.: (1) General View; (2) Extent of the Church; (3) The External Condition; (4) Doctrines; (5) Heresies; (6) Rites; (7) Polity; (8) Schisms; (9) Councils; (10) Bishops and Doctors; (11) Heretics; (12) Martyrs; (13) Miracles; (14) Jews; (15) Other Religions; (16) Political Changes.

These Centuria Magdeburgenses were epoch-making both as to method and contents. As to method, for this secular arrangement, of course with variations in the topical subdivisions, maintained its ground for two hundred years,

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Mosheim's well-known Ecclesiastical History being the last great work which followed it. The matter of the work also made an epoch, for it roused Romanists and Protestants to similar labours. The first great Romanist reply was that of Baronius (died 1607), in his great Annales Ecclesiastici, in twelve folio volumes, on which he spent thirty years of unwearied study. These Annals have been emendated and continued again and again. They formed for a long period the staple history of the Church from the Romish standpoint. Many Protestant works have also been penned along the lines of the Magdeburg Centuries, not only by Lutherans but by other sections of the Reformed Churches. Thus the Swiss Hottinger wrote in nine folio volumes the Calvinist counterpart (Historia Ecclesiastica Novi Testamenti, 1651, etc.); and in due time the Pietists had their "centuries" in the work of Gottfried Arnold, in two folio volumes (Unparteiischer Kirchen und Ketzerhistorie, 1699), and the Rationalists theirs in Henke's history, published in 9 vols. at Brunswick from 1788 to 1820. All these books, however, and their imitators, were so mechanical in method, that, although they are still useful as accumulations of materials, their interest is now little more than historical. The modern conception of history has made them obsolete.

The MODERN EPOCH in ecclesiastical theology commenced with Neander. Neander first applied to the history of the Christian Church that new method in historical research which in the hands of Niebuhr had revivified the history of pagan Rome. Three principles guided his entire labours. He critically examined his sources; he scrupulously endeavoured to present the truth and to eschew bias; and instead of cataloguing leading men, events, and doctrines according to successive centuries, he strove to photograph the successive periods in the history of the Church as they appear not in arbitrary times and seasons, but in the Providence of God, using all historical data to show the growth of the Christian spirit. These three principles now govern all ecclesiastical theology worthy of the name, that is to say, scientific study of sources, scientific presentation of facts, and scientific inference of general truths; and it is the lasting honour of Neander to have been the pioneer in this fruitful exploration. Neander's history was another epoch-making book, and just for this reason, that it peculiarly breathed the modern spirit. The same spirit is now perceptible in all schools of thought, Lutheran, Calvinist, Romish, and Rationalist. More detailed illustration it is unnecessary to give here. The principal results of the application of this modern spirit will be best given in the characterisations of "Books Recommended."

## § 71.

### DIVISION OF ECCLESIASTICAL THEOLOGY.

From what has been said in the elucidation of the problem of the branch of theological science we are now considering, the study of ecclesiastical theology manifestly falls into three divisions, viz. the study of its sources, the study of its periods, and the study of its branches.

An indispensable preliminary to any scientific study of the history of the Christian Church, or of any period of that history, is an acquaintance, and a critical acquaintance, with all the varieties of DATA which constitute the accessible sources of knowledge. These sources are various. Information may be found in all those relics of the past commonly known as antiquities, in ancient temples and tombs and architectural structures of all kinds still extant, in inscriptions telling of great men or great deeds, in burial-places like the Roman catacombs, in seals of office, in coins, in medals and tokens cast in commemoration of noteworthy events. Information may also be found in writings of many kinds contemporary with the events we are investigating, in the acts of councils, in the bulls, decretals, and breves of popes, in published liturgies, in promulgated creeds and confessions, in the rules of monasteries or the regulations of churches, in sermons and pamphlets and lampoons, as well as in the express records made by authority or undertaken by individuals, whether historical or statistical. Histories written too late to be contemporary, but composed from sources no DIVISION. 443

longer extant, like the famous history of Eusebius, may also be dignified by the title of original sources. Knowledge of any kind that is contemporary, or virtually contemporary, with the times that are being studied, becomes an original source for that specific period, and the deciphering of an almost perished fresco, or the discovery of a buried urn, or the translation of letters of envoys stored in national or ecclesiastical archives, may be as useful for the solution of some point of difficulty as the more systematic deliverance of some contemporary historian. The student of ecclesiastical theology disdains no source however trivial from which he can hope to procure any item of intelligence. He searches in all fields, and brings a cultured criticism to bear upon all materials he can obtain. Contemporary sources alone do not make reliable history, but such sources as weighed and judged by a keen and true and cultivated historical sense.

The PERIODS of ecclesiastical theology are well marked. They are certainly not to be judged by centuries, although there are subdivisions into centuries which are very near the truth, and hence the mechanical and unfaithful nature of the earlier method of the study of our science. The history of the Christian Church has had three great epochs, viz. first, that of the Ancient Church, A.D. 33-A.D. 800, when it was possible to speak of a Catholic and undivided Church; secondly, that of the so-called Middle Age (A.D. 800-1517), when the Church of Christ has become divided into the two distinct branches of East and West; and thirdly, the modern era dating from the Reformation, when, in addition to the Romish and Eastern communions, we have as offshoots from the former the several Protestant communions. these epochs are again subdivided into several well-marked periods.

The BRANCHES of ecclesiastical theology are also well marked. The history of the Church in its external relations divides into two parts, for, on the one hand, we have the relation of the Church to the State everywhere to consider, and on the other hand, we have the history of missions, or the relation of the Church to the unregenerate world. Then again, the history of the Church in its internal relations

divides into several parts, for there require to be considered, first, the general character of the epoch or period under review; secondly, the biography of the leading men in the Church history of the time; thirdly, the theological teaching, and especially the history of doctrine; and fourthly, the practice of the Church, its worship, morals, government, and art.

The whole scheme of the division of ecclesiastical theology would run as follows:—

- I. The study of the sources of ecclesiastical theology (or Ecclesiastical Introduction), viz.—
  - 1. Ecclesiastical archæology.
  - 2. Critical examination of written records of all kinds.
- II. The study of the periods of ecclesiastical theology (or Ecclesiastical History), viz.—
  - 1. The Old-Catholic Age, consisting of—
  - Period (1) The Age of Persecution, from the death of the apostles to Constantine, A.D. 70-325.
    - ,, (2) The Church of the Empire, from Constantine to Charlemagne, A.D. 325-c. 800.
      - 2. The Middle Age, consisting of-
  - Period (3) The Roman struggle for supremacy, from the foundation of the Carolingian Empire to the victory of the Papacy over the Empire under Innocent III., A.D. c. 800-1217.
    - , (4) The Roman supremacy, from Innocent to Boniface VIII., A.D. 1217-1294.
    - , (5) Gradual decay of Roman Catholicism and preparation for a reformation, from Boniface to Luther, A.D. 1294-1517.
    - 3. The Modern Age.
  - Period (6) The Reformation and Roman Catholic reaction, A.D. 1517c. 1600.
    - (7) The Age of the Confessions, A.D. c. 1600-c. 1750.
    - (8) The spread of infidelity, and subsequently the revival of Christianity in Europe and America, A.D. c. 1750-the present.
- III. The study of the branches of ecclesiastical theology (or Special Ecclesiastical History) viz.—
  - (1) The history of Church and State.
  - (2) The history of the constitution of the Church, or Church government or polity.
  - (3) The history of missions.
  - (4) The history of Christian leaders.
  - (5) The history of Christian teaching, and especially the history of doctrine.
  - (6) The history of Christian practice, including the history of Christian ethics, or the theory of practice.
  - (7) The history of Christian art.

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## § 72.

#### OUTLINE OF ECCLESIASTICAL THEOLOGY.

After the distinction between the sources of ecclesiastical theology and those sources as elaborated (which has already occupied sufficient attention), nothing more needs be said upon the first division of our subject, except to give a few hints as to the principal works which deal with the written and monumental sources, as will be done in the next section. What is desirable here is, first, to give the briefest possible characterisation of the several periods of ecclesiastical theology, and secondly, to add a short sketch of that very important branch which is called the history of doctrine.

I. First, then, a running characterisation of the several periods.

The FIRST PERIOD, from the death of the apostles to Constantine and the First General Council, A.D. 70-325, was THE AGE OF THE MARTYRS, being the time of struggle, without the Churches and within. Without, the Churches contended for very existence with the Roman world. Church wrestled with State for life, and ultimately the Church became the victor. The spirit of the age was the martyr spirit. The leading biographies are biographies of martyrs. Christian practice was conditioned everywhere by the antagonism of the heathen world. Nevertheless, Christianity spread in spite of opposition, had overrun the whole Roman Empire before the period had completed much more than half its course, and had planted congregations in Armenia, Scythia, Parthia, and other regions beyond the rule of imperial Rome. Within the Church, there was conflict also. The Church had to constitute itself, both by self-development and by the gradual elimination of what was alien, in both of which tasks heresies played a large part, notably Ebionitism, Gnosticism, and Montanism. The principal ecclesiastical writers are the so-called Apostolic Fathers (the letters of Barnabas, Clement of Rome, Papias, Ignatius, and Polycarp, the Shepherd of Hermas, and some other writings), Justin Martyr, Irenaus (died c. 202), Tertullian (died c. 230), Origen (died 254), and Cyprian (died 258).

In the SECOND PERIOD, from A.D. 325 to the commencement of the ninth century, Christianity was the State religion of the Roman Empire. This also was a time of struggle, not for existence, but for the formulation of faith and practice. The age might be called THE AGE OF COUNCILS. The speculative tendency governed the formulation of doctrines in the Eastern Church, and the practical tendency in the Western. From the time of the Council of Chalcedon, 451, the decline of the Greek Church dates, that decline resulting from doctrinal disputes. Soon only the East remained to the Roman Empire. Under the inroads of the German peoples the Western Empire succumbed, but the conversion of the invaders to Christianity infused new life into the Western Church, at the same time that it facilitated the growth of the papacy. Another prominent feature of the time was the rise and spread of Mahometanism, to which the decay of the Eastern Church largely ministered. The principal ecclesiastical writers of the time were Athanasius (died 372), Basil (died 379), Gregory of Nyssa (died 394), Gregory of Nazianzum (died c. 390), Hilary (died c. 366), Ambrose (died 397), Chrysostom (died 407), Theodore of Mopsuestia (died 428), Jerome (died 420), Augustine (died 430), Gregory the Great (died 604), John of Damascus (died c. 754).

The THIRD PERIOD was THE AGE OF PAPAL STRUGGLE FOR SUPREMACY. In this period the final breach came between the Greek and Roman Churches, the Eastern Church pursuing thenceforth its own separate development,—if such a word be allowable for so feeble a history. Interest becomes concentrated upon the Western Church. The Western peoples are united under the Carolingian Empire and the papacy. The intelligence, piety, and religious influence of the Roman Church is manifested by such movements as scholasticism, the crusades, and the founding of monasteries. The struggle becomes acute between the papacy and the empire. At length comes the inevitable conflict of the empire and the papacy for the lordship of the world. There is a final recog-

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nition of the supreme headship of the Pope under Pope Innocent III. The principal ecclesiastical writers of the period were Rabanus Maurus (died 856), Paschasius Radbertus (died 870), Johannes Scotus Erigena (died c. 880), Berengarius (died 1088), Lanfranc (died 1089), Anselm (died 1109), Abelard (died 1142), Bernard of Clairvaux (died 1153), Hugo of St. Victor (died 1141), Richard of St. Victor (died 1173), Peter Lombard (died 1164).

The FOURTH PERIOD, from 1217-1294, was THE AGE OF The Eastern Church was still pursuing its THE PAPAL PRIME. own course, but historical interest is almost wholly centred in the West. The intellectual movements of the time are seen in the finest productions of scholasticism; the piety of the time is evident in such choice spirits as Francis of Assisi and Saint Elizabeth, and in such choice churches as the cathedral churches of Paris, Salisbury, Strasburg, Amiens, and Rheims, St. Gudule at Brussels, and the Liebfrauenkirche at Trèves; the religious leanings of the time are signalised by the great success of the various monastic orders. The principal ecclesiastical writers were Matthew Paris (died 1259), Alexander of Hales (died 1245), Albertus Magnus (died 1280), Vincent of Beauvais (died 1264), Thomas Aquinas (died 1274), Bonaventura (died 1274), Roger Bacon (died 1292).

To the fifth period, from Boniface to Luther, the name may be given of the AGE of the Decay of pre-tridentine rome, or the AGE of the preparation for the reformation. The papal idea lost its attractiveness, partly because of papal schisms, as when two popes ruled, and partly because of the resentment of States against the absolute rule of the papal curia. And preparation was being made for the Reformation on other sides than the political. The morals of Rome had sunk to a low level; a high standard of piety had been reached by the German mystics; the renaissance and the resurrection of classical antiquity had given a great impetus to intellectual culture; men like Wiclif, and Hus, and Savonarola were already throwing off intellectual allegiance to Rome. The leading ecclesiastical writers of the time were Johannes Duns Scotus (died 1308), Meister Eckhart (died 1329),

William of Oceam (died 1347), Johann Tauler (died 1361), John Wielif (died 1384), Jean a Gerson (died 1429), Matthias von Janow (died 1395), Nicolas de Clémanges (died 1440), Thomas à Kempis (died 1471), Nicolaus Cusanus (died 1464).

The SIXTH PERIOD, from 1517 to c. 1600, is known as THE AGE OF THE REFORMATION, the Reformation extending to the Western Church alone, the Eastern communions still following their individual development. More exactly it should be called the Age of the Reformation and of the Counter-Reformation. Protestantism became firmly established in Germany, Switzerland, and Great Britain, but was, by the combined action of the new Order of the Jesuits and the Council of Trent, defeated in Italy, Spain, at first in the Netherlands, and ultimately in France. The principal ecclesiastical writers were Luther, Zwingli, Melanchthon, Calvin, and Socinus.

Of the SEVENTH PERIOD, extending from the beginning of the seventeeth century to about the middle of the eighteenth century, the general character is again well summarised by calling it the age of the confessions. Romanism, Lutheranism, and Calvinism were all formulating their beliefs, and carrying their distinctive principles to their logical conclusions, whilst, as opposed to these, other lines of thought were also being formulated, such as Arminianism, Socinianism, and the new philosophies introduced by Descartes and by Bacon.

To the present age it is scarcely possible to apply a name as yet, although its mission seems to be, by a process of critical assimilation, to erect a Christian as distinguished from a confessional theology.

II. Secondly, a few words on that important branch of ecclesiastical theology called ecclesiastical dogmatics or the history of Christian doctrine.

The history of Christian doctrine deals with Christian doctrine historically. Its aim is to exhibit historically the formulation of the faith during the course of the Christian Church, and to exhibit this formulation, quite irrespective of its success or its failure, its right reasons or its false trend.

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Like all history, the science is governed by a law of development. Therefore the history of doctrines sets forth the several forms which the system of Christian doctrine has assumed at different epochs; it also expounds the many variations of form in the individual doctrines of Christianity; it shows at the same time the changes of doctrinal opinion which have been brought about by new forms of culture or conviction; and it equally throws the strongest possible light upon the imperishable in Christian doctrine, which is rendered all the more evident by the fluctuations of the non-essential. In short, the history of doctrines brings the historical method, with all its force and usefulness, to bear upon the beliefs of all Christian ages and climes. How invaluable an introduction such a study must be to that critical investigation of Christian doctrine upon which we speedily enter must be evident at a glance! How invaluable also in showing the presence of the abiding Spirit of God! The history of doctrines completes the study of ecclesiastical theology, introduces to comparative theology, and, as already pointed out, has many a moral and religious use.

The history of doctrines—or ecclesiastical dogmatics, as we might say, to retain the parallel with Biblical dogmatics—is, like the latter, divided into two main parts, the one of which deals with the general history of doctrines, and the other with the special history. The former strives to present the peculiar features of each phase of the teaching of the Christian Church; the latter endeavours to pursue the historical development of each leading branch of Christian doctrine.

The whole division would therefore run as follows,—and it will be noticed that the subdivisions substantially agree with the periods of ecclesiastical theology:—

# I. General history of doctrines—

- 1. In the days prior to the Council of Nicæa, 325.
- In the age of councils, from the first Œeumenical Council of Nicea to the seventh at Nicæa, 787.
- 3. In the age of scholastic systems, from 800-1517.
- 4. In the Reformation Age.
- 5. In the age of the conflicts of confessions.
- 6. In the present age of criticism.

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#### II. Special history of doctrines, viz.-

1. The	history	of the doctrine of	God.
2.	,,	5.5	angels.
3.	,,	9.9	the world.
4.	,,	2.7	man.
5.	2.7	,,	evil.
6.	23	,,	salvation.
7.	2.9	,,	the church.
8.		12	the last things.

### § 73.

#### BOOKS RECOMMENDED ON ECCLESIASTICAL THEOLOGY.

#### I. For Introductory Study.

FISHER, GEORGE PARK, History of the Christian Church, with maps,

1 vol., 16th thousand, Hodder, 1895.

Moeller, Wilhelm, History of the Christian Church, translated from the German by Andrew Rutherford, Sonnenschein, 3 vols.: vol. i., A.D. 1-600; vol. ii., the Middle Ages; vol. iii. is not yet published.

Schaff, Philip, History of the Christian Church, new edition, T. & T. Clark, 1883–1893; Apostolic Christianity, in 2 vols.; Ante-Nicene Christianity, a.d. 100–325, in 2 vols.; Nicene and Post-Nicene Christianity, from Constantine the Great to Gregory the Great, a.d. 600, in 2 vols.; Mediceval Christianity, from Gregory the First to Gregory the Seventh, a.d. 1073, in 2 vols.; The German Reformation, in 2 vols.; The Swiss Reformation, in 2 vols.

# II. For More Advanced Study.

# (1.) Serials.

Zeitschrift für Kirchengeschichte, Gotha, commenced in 1876, and still issuing quarterly. [Protestant: has good annual summaries of recent ecclesiastical literature.]

Römische Quartalschrift für christliche Alterthumskunde und für Kirchengeschichte, Rome and Freiburg, commenced in 1887, and still issuing. [Roman Catholic.]

Epochs of Church History, edited by Mandell Creighton, Longmans, 1886–1889, 12mo.

1. Tucker, H. W., The English 3. Plummer, Alfred, The Church of the Early Fathers.

2. Perry, George G., The History of 1. Overton, J. H., The Evangelical the Reformation in England. Revival in the Eighteenth Century.

5. Brodrick, G. C., A History of the University of Oxford.

6. Mullinger, J. Bass, A History of the University of Cambridge.

7. Hunt, W., The English Church in the Middle Ages.

8. GWATKIN, H. M., The Arian Controversy.

9. POOLE, REGINALD L., Wycliffe and Movements for Reform.

10. Ward, A. W., The Counter-Reformation.

11. CARR, A., The Church and the Roman Empire.

12. WAKEMAN, HENRY OFFLEY, The Church and the Puritans, 1570-1660.

13. Tozer, H. F., The Church and the Eastern Empire.

14. STEPHENS, W. R. W., Hildebrand and his Times.

15. Balzani, Ugo, The Popes and the Hohenstaufen.

Papers of the American Society of Church History, edited by Samuel Macauley Jackson, New York and London, Putnam, commenced in 1889, and still issuing annually. The contents are as follows :-

Vol. 1. Schaff, Philip, The Progress of Religious Freedom as shown in the History of Toleration Acts. Lea, H.C., Indulgences in Spain.

Moffat, J. C., A Crisis in the Middle Ages.

Foster, F. H., Melanchthon's Synergism.

SCOTT, H. M'DONALD, Some Notes on Syncretism in the Christian Theology of the 2nd and 3rd centuries.

RICHARDSON, E. C., The Influence of the Golden Legend on Pre-Reformation Culture.

M'GIFFERT, A. C., Notes on the New Testament Canon of Euschius.

Jackson, S. M., A Note on the Need of a Complete Missionary History in English.

Vol. 2. Fisher, G. P., Some Remarks on the Alogi.

Baird, H. M., The Camisard Uprising of the French Protestants.

HURST, J. F., Parochial Libraries in the Colonial Period. SCHAFF, PHILIP, Dante's

Theology.

Lewis, A. H., The Corruption of Christianity through Paganism during the First Two Centuries. M'ILVAIN, J. W., Some Relics

of Early Presbyterianism in Maryland.

Vol. 3. Schaff, Philip, The Renaissance, the Revival of Learning and Art in the 14th and 15th centuries.

HULBERT, H. W., The His-Geography of the toricalChristian Church.

Burrage, H. S., The Anabaptists of the 16th century.

RICHARD, J. W., The Vicissitudes of the Doctrine of the Lord's Supper in the English Church.

SMITH, T. E. V., Villegaignon, Founder and Destroyer of the First Huguenot Settlement in the New World.

Newman, A. H., Report on a Proposed Series of Denominational Histories to be published under the auspices of American Society of Church History.

M'CRACKEN, H. M., The Place of Church History in the College Course of Study.

Vol. 4. Works of Interest to the Student of Church History which have appeared in 1891, a bibliography compiled by the Secre-

GILLETT, W. K., The Religious Motives of Christopher Colum-

bus.

VALKER, WILLISTON, The "Heads of Agreement," and the Union of Congregationalists WALKER, and Presbyterians based on them in London, 1691.

DAVIDSON, THOS., Christian Unity, or the Kingdom of

Heaven.

GORDON, JOHN, The Bulls distributing America.

NICUM, JOHN, The Confessional History of the Evangelical Lutheran Church in the United States.

(hristian BARE, FERREE, Thought in Architecture.

SCHAFF, PHILIP, The Friendship of Calvin and Melanchthon. NEWMAN, A H., Recent Re-

searches concerning Mediæval Sects.

Vol. 5. Works of Interest to the Student of Church History which have appeared in 1892, a bibliography compiled by the Secretary.

Schaff, Philip, St. Thomas

of Canterbury.

LEA, H. C., The Absolution
Formulæ of the Templars.

WALKER, WILLISTON, The
Services of the Mathers in New England Religious Development.

CHAMBERS, T. W., Holland and Religious Freedom.

SCOTT, G. R. W., The Italian

Vol. 6. Chambers, T. W., The Schaff Memorial Meetings.

Lowrey, Asbury, Life and Work of Bishop Francis Asbury.

RANKIN, J. E., Benjamin Schmolck, Author of "My Jesus as Thou wilt," a Monograph.

O'GORMAN, THOS., The Life and Work of St. Thomas Aquinas.

M'GIFFERT, A. C., The Gospel of Peter.

RICHARDSON, E. C., Faust and the Clementine Recognitions.

Burrage, H. S., The Contest for Religious Liberty in Massa-

VEDDER, H. C., The Doctrine of Apostolic Succession in the Church of England.

WILLIAMS, G. F., Prayers for the Dead.

The National Churches, edited by P. H. Ditchfield, with maps, Wells Gardner, 1891-1894.

BARING-GOULD, S., The Church in

MEYRICK, FRED., The Church in Spain. OLDEN, THOS., The Church of Ireland.

LUCKOCK, HERBERT MORTIMER, The Church in Scotland.

SMITH, RICHARD TRAVERS, The Church in France.

PENNINGTON, ARTHUR ROBERT, The Church in Italy.

DITCHFIELD, P. H., The Church in the Netherlands.

The American Church History Series, consisting of a series of denominational histories published under the auspices of the American Society of Church History: general editors, Philip Schaff, H. C. Potter, George P. Fisher, J. F. Hurst, E. J. Wolf, Henry C. Vedder, Samuel M. Jackson, New York, 1893–1896, 12 vols. [Each volume gives the pre-American history of each denomination, and a bibliography.]

Vol. 1. Carroll, H. K., The Religious Forces of the United States.

Vol. 2. Newman, A. H., Baptists. Vol. 3. WALKER, WILLISTON, Congregationalists.

Vol. 4. Jacobs, H. E., Lutherans. Vol. 5. Buckley, J. M., Methodists.

Vol. 6. Thompson, Robert Ellis, Presbyterians.

Vol. 7. TIFFANY, C. C., Protestant Episcopal.

Vol. 8. Corwin, E. Church, Dutch. T., Dubbs, J. H., Reformed Church, German.

Hamilton, J. T., Moravian. Vol. 9. O'GORMAN, THOS., Roman Catholics.

Vol. 10. Allen, J. H., Unitarians.

Eddy, Richard, Universalists. Vol. 11. Alexander, Gross, Methodist

Church, South. Johnson, Thomas C., Presby-

terians, South. Scouller, James B., United

Presbyterians.

FOSTER, R. V., Cumberland
Presbyterians.
Vol. 12. Tyler, R. B., Disciples.
THOMAS, A. C., and THOMAS,
R. H., Friends.

BERGER, D., United Brethren. Spreng, S. P., Ev. Association. JACKSON, SAMUEL MACAULEY, General Bibliography of Church History.

# (2.) Of Ecclesiastical Theology in general.

Gieseler, J. C. L., Lehrbuch der Kirchengeschichte, Bonn 1824-53, 3 vols. in 8 parts: a fourth edition of the first 2 vols. was published in 1847; 4th, 5th, and 6th vols. have been edited from his papers, the last vol. giving a history of doctrine; the first three volumes, reaching to the Reformation, have also been translated by S. Davidson and J. W. Hull, in 5 vols., under the title of A Compendium of Church History, T. & T. Clark, 1854-55. [Presents the materials for Church history by giving carefully-selected extracts from the original authorities, which are critically expounded.]

Neander, A., Allgemeine Geschichte der christ. Religion und Kirche, 6 vols. in 11 parts, Hamburg 1825-52, 4th edit. 9 vols., Gotha 1864-65; also translated from the second German edition by Joseph Torrey, under the title, General History of the Christian

Religion and Church, 9 vols., T. & T. Clark, 1851-55.

HASE, K. VON, Kirchengeschichte, Lehrbuch zunüchst für akademische Vorlesungen, 1st edit. 1834, 11th edit. 1886, Leipsic. [A manual to accompany lectures; German bibliography carefully attended to, and the line drawn everywhere between original and elaborated sources; its sketches are miniatures, brilliant, perhaps too brilliant.] The 7th edition was translated by C. E. Blumenthal and C. P. King, New York 1855, under the title, A History of the Christian Church.

— Kirchengeschichte auf der Grundlage akademischer Vorlesungen, Leipsic 1885–1893; part 1, Ancient Church History; part 2, Mid-Church History; part 3, Modern Church History. [These three parts occupy vols. i.-v. of Karl von Hase's Gesammelte Werke, and are lectures, not in abbreviated, but in full literary

form.

Hagenbach, K. R., Kirchengeschichte von der ältesten Zeit bis zum 19 Jahrhundert, in Vorlesungen, neue, durchgängig über-arbeitete Gesammtausgabe, Leipsic, 7 vols., 1869–1872, commenced in 1834. A new edition, the 5th, of the first three volumes, was issued in 1887 by F. Nippold. Parts have been translated, viz. History of the Reformation in Germany and Switzerland chiefly, translated from the fourth revised edition of the German by Evelina Moore, 2 vols., T. & T. Clark, 1878, 1879, and History of the Church in the Eighteenth and Nineteenth Centuries, translated from the last German edition, with additions, by J. F. Hurst, New York, 2 vols., 1869.

Kurtz, J. H., Lehrbuch der Kirchengeschichte, Mitau 1849, 11th edit. in 2 vols., 1890, Leipsic; translated by Alfred Edersheim

as History of the Christian Church to the Reformation, T. & T. Clark, 1860, 5th edit. 1880, and History of the Christian Church from the Reformation to the Present Time, 3rd edit., T. & T. Clark, 1881; also translated by John Macpherson, as Church History by Professor Kurtz, in 3 vols., 1888; see Foreign Biblical Library, § 15 (3.). [A manual for students, paying much attention to German bibliography.]

ROBERTSON, J. C., History of the Christian Church, 1st edit. 4 vols., 1854, etc., 2nd edit. 8 vols., 1874, etc., Murray. [Episco-

palian; ends at the Reformation.]

Greenwood, Thomas, Cathedra Petri, a political history of the Great Latin Patriarchate, 6 vols., 1856–1872. [Vol. i., A.D. 57–456; vol. ii., A.D. 467–842; vol. iii., A.D. 843–999; vol. iv., A.D. 1000– 1123; vol. v., 1124–1215; vol. vi., A.D. 1216–1413.]

BAUR, F. C., Geschichte der christlichen Kirche, 5 vols., Tübingen 1863-1877; the first vol. has been translated by Allan Menzies under the title, The Church History of the First Three Centuries,

2 vols. [See Theol. Trans. Fund Lib., § 15 (3.).]

Guettée, Wladimir, Histoire de l'Eglise depuis la naissance de Notre Sauveur Jesus-Christ jusqu'à nos jours, composée sur les documents originaux et authentiques, Paris, 7 vols., commenced in 1869, and still issuing. [By a theological professor of the Greek Church: vol. i., Apostolic Age; vol. ii., Anti-Nicene Church; vols. iii., iv., v., Seven Œcumenical Councils; vols. vi., vii., From

the Eighth Century to the Council of Florence.]

Weingarten, H., Zeittafeln zur Kirchengeschichte, Berlin, 2nd edit. 1874, 4th edit. 1891. [Presents the history of the Church in an ably-arranged series of chronological tables; a better book than Riddle's Ecclesiastical Chronology, or Annals of the Christian Church from its Foundation to the Present Time, containing a riew of general Church history and the course of secular events, the limits of the Church and its relation to the State, controversies, sects, and parties, rites, institutions, discipline, ecclesiastical writers, the whole arranged according to the order of dates, and divided into seven periods, to which are added Lists of Councils, and of Popes, Patriarchs, and Archbishops of Canterbury, Longmans, 1840: this latter book English readers will use with advantage.]

Herzog, J. J., Abriss der gesammten Kirchengeschichte, in 3 parts, Erlangen 1876-82; 2nd edit. in 2 vols., edited by G. Koffmane,

Leipsic 1892. [Old-Catholic.]

Hergenröther, J., Handbuch der allgemeinen Kirchengeschichte, 2 vols., Freiburg 1876-78, 3rd edit. 1884-86. [Reaches to the Reformation; Roman Catholic.]

Chastel, E., Histoire du Christianisme depuis son origine jusqu'à

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Funk, F. X., Lehrbuch der Kirchengeschichte, Rottenberg 1886. [Does for Romanists what Hase and Kurtz do for Protestants.]

HAUCK, ALB., Kirchengeschichte Deutschlands, Leipsic: part 1, 1887, Bis zum Tode des Bonifatius; part 2, 1st half, 1889, Die fränkische Kirche als Reichskirche, 2nd half, 1890, Auflösung der Reichskirche; part 3, 1st half, 1893, Konsolidierung der deutschen Kirche, 2nd half, 1896, Das Uebergewicht des Königthums in der Kirche, und der Bruch desselben durch Rom.

Sheldon, Henry C., History of the Christian Church, 5 vols., New York 1894. [Vol. i., The Ancient Church; vol. ii., The Mediæval Church; vols. iii., iv., and v., The Modern Church.]

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# (3.) Sources—Monuments and Inscriptions.

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Maitland, Chas., The Church in the Catacombs, a description of the Primitive Church of Rome, illustrated by its Sepulchral Remains,

2nd edit., Longmans, 1847.

Blant, E. Le, Inscriptions chrétiennes de la Gaule, 2 vols., Paris 1856.

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Monuments of Christian Art, from the 2nd to the 18th Century,
concerning Questions of Doctrine now disputed in the Church,
Hatchard, 1870.

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NORTHCOTE, J. S., Epitaphs of the Catacombs, or Christian Inscriptions in Rome during the First Four Centuries, Longmans, 1878.

Roller, Théornile, Les Catacombes de Rome, Histoire de l'Art et des Croyances Religieuses pendant les Premiers Siècles du Christianisme, 2 vols. folio, Paris 1880. [Illustrated by 100 plates, mostly photographed directly by means of the lime-light.]

Kraus, Franz Xaver, Real-encyklopädie der christlichen Alterthämer, unter Mitwirkung mehrerer Fachgenossen, 2 vols. 4to,

1882, 1886, Freiburg im Breisgau.

— Geschichte der christlichen Kunst, in 2 vols. 4to, vol i., 1896, Freiburg im Breisgau. [Roman Catholic.]

# (4.) Sources—Councils and Acta Paparum.

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tions of Labbe and Harduin; the standard work.]

Hefele, C. J. von, Conciliengeschichte, nach den Quellen bearbeitet, 2nd edit., Freiburg, 1st vol. 1873, 2nd vol. 1875, 3rd vol. 1877, 4th vol. 1879; 5th vol. 1886, and 6th 1890, edited by Alois Knöpfler; 8th vol. 1887, and 9th 1890, edited by Hergenröther; partly translated as A History of the Councils of the Church, from the Original Documents: vol. i., to A.D. 325; vol. ii., A.D. 326 to 429; vol. iii., A.D. 431 to 451; vol. iv., A.D. 451 to 680; vol. v., A.D. 681 to 1073.

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Spelman, Henry, Concilia, Decreta, Leges, Constitutiones in reecclesiarum orbis britannici, etc., riz. Pan Anglica, Scotica, Hibernica, Provincialia, Diocesana ab introitu Normannorum A.D. 1066 ad exutam Papam A.D. 1531: accesserunt etiam aliæ ad rem ecclesiasticam spectantia; completed and published by Dugdale, being the 2nd vol. of his Conneils, 1664; best edition by David Wilkins, 4 vols. folio, 1737.

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with the life of Athanasius, Rivingtons, 1853.

Stanley, Arthur P., Lectures on the History of the Eastern Church; with an introduction on the study of ecclesiastical history, Murray, 1861, 5th edit.1875. [Lectures 2 to 5 treat of the Council of Nicæa.]

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Chemnitz, Martin, Examen Concilii Tridentini, folio, 1578: a German translation was issued by R. Bendixen and C. E.

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strantium, 4to, 1820.

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# (5.) Sources—Creeds and Symbolics.

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Swainson, C. A., The Nicene and Apostles' Creeds, their Literary History, together with an Account of the Growth and Reception of the Sermon on the Faith, commonly called "The Creed of St.

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# (14.) Periods—Reformation.

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# (15.) Periods—Post-Reformation.

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in 9 vols., 1852, Straker, with a life of Collier, embracing a view of his opinions, and those of the Nonjurors as a body, by Thomas Lathbury.

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Soames, H., History of the Reformation of the Church of England,

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Skeats, Herbert S., History of the Free Churches of England, 1868; new edition, Shepheard, 1891, containing From the Reformation to 1851 by H. S. Skeats, with a Continuation to 1891 by Chas. S. Miall.

Vaughan, Robert, Revolutions in English History, 3 vols., 1859-62, Longmans. [The second volume treats of revolutions

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Tulloch, John, Rational Theology and Christian Philosophy in England in the Seventeenth Century, 2 vols., Edinburgh 1872.

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Krasinski, V., Religious History of the Slaronic Nations, 2nd edit. 12mo, Edinburgh 1869.

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Killen, W. D., The Ecclesiastical History of Ireland from the Earliest Period to the Present Times, 2 vols., Macmillan, 1875.

Hamilton, T., History of the Irish Presbyterian Church, see Handbooks for Bible Classes, § 15 (3.).

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For American Church History Series, see (1.).

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Planck, G. J., Geschichte der Entstehung und Ausbildung der christl,-kirchlichen Gesellschaftsverfassung, 5 vols., Hanover 1803-

Lechler, G. V., Geschichte der Presbyterial- und Synodal- Verfassung seit der Reformation, Leyden 1854.

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# (17.) Branches—History of Various Views on Church Government.

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FLETCHER, JOSEPH, History of Independency in England, A.D. 1588-1828; with an introductory history of the development of the principles of Independency in the earliest times, 4 vols. 12mo, 1847-1849, new edit. 1862.

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GILLETT, E. H., History of the Presbyterian Church in the United States of America, 2 vols. 12mo, Philadelphia, U.S.A., 1864.

Witherow, Thos., Historical and Literary Memorials of Presbyterianism in Ireland, 1623-1731, Mullan, 1879-1880.

Briggs, Chas. Augustus, American Presbyterianism, its origin and early history, together with an appendix of letters and documents, many of which have been recently discovered, with maps, T. & T. Clark, 1885.

Hamilton, Thos., History of the Irish Presbyterian Church, see

Handbooks for Bible Classes, § 15 (3.).

# (18.) Branches—History of Missions.

For a full list of works (1) on Missions, their Philosophy, History, and (2) on the Missions to the various countries of the earth, Africa, American Indians, Burmah, etc., and (3) on the lives of missionaries, consult pp. 292 to 325 of J. F. Hurst's Literature of Theology, and Appendix A of vol. i. of The Encyclopædia of Missions, mentioned below, which is a bibliography of foreign missions, being a list of books and pamphlets upon missionary work and workers, and upon the religions, ethnology, topography, and geography of missionary lands to the close of 1890, compiled by Samuel Macauley Jackson, assisted by Geo. Wm. Gilmore.

Brown, Wm., The History of the Christian Missions of the Sixteenth, Seventeenth, Eighteenth, and Nineteenth Centuries, containing accounts of the propagation of Christianity by the rarious missionary societies of England, Ireland, Scotland, and America; also those of an early date by the Swiss, Swedes, Dutch, Danes, Moravians, etc., 3 vols., 3rd edit., Baker, 1864.

Kingsmill, J., Missions and Missionaries, historically viewed from

their commencement, Longmans, 1854.

SMITH, GEORGE, A Short History of Christian Missions, from Abraham and Paul to Carey, Livingstone, and Duff; see Hand-

books for Bible Classes, § 15 (3.).

Warneck, Gustav, Outline of the History of the Protestant Missions from the Reformation to the Present Time; a contribution to recent Church history, reprinted, with additions, from the Real-Encyklopidie, translated from the 2nd edit. by Thomas Smith, Edinburgh 1884.

Storrow, E., Protestant Missions in Pagan Lands; a manual of missionary facts and principles relating to foreign missions

throughout the world, Snow, 1888.

Hodder, Edwin, Conquests of the Cross, a record of Missionary Work throughout the world, 3 vols. 4to, illustrated, Cassell, 1891–1893.

The Encyclopedia of Missions, descriptive, historical, biographical,

statistical, with a full assortment of maps, a complete biography, and lists of Bible versions, missionary societies, mission stations, and a general index, edited by Edwin Mansell Bliss, 2 vols. 4to, Funk & Wagnalls.

# (19.) Branches—Christian Biography.

# (a.) Collections of Biographies.

Fuller, Thomas, The History of the Worthies of England, fol. 1662: a good edition is that of P. Austin Nuttall, containing brief notices of the most celebrated worthies of England who have flourished since the time of Fuller, with copious notes, 3 vols., Tegg, 1840.

CALAMY, EDMUND, An Account of the Ministers, Lecturers, Masters and Fellows of Colleges, and Schoolmasters who were ejected or silenced after the Restoration in 1660, by, or before, the Act for Nonconformity, designed for the preserving to posterity the memory of their names, characters, writings, and sufferings, 2nd edit., 2 vols., 1713.

— A Continuation of the Account (as above), to which is added the Church and the Dissenters compared as to Persecution, in some remarks on Dr. Walker's attempt to recover the names and sufferings of the clergy that were sequestred, etc., between 1640 and 1660, 2 vols., 1727.

Palmer, Samuel, The Nonconformists Memorial, being an account of the lives, suffering, and printed works of the two thousand ministers ejected from the Church of England, chiefly by the Act of Nonconformity, 1662, originally written by Edmund Calamy, abridged, corrected, and methodised, with many additional anecdotes and several new lives, 3 vols., 2nd edit. 1802.

Brook, Benj., The Lives of the Puritans, containing a biographical account of those divines who distinguished themselves in the cause of religious liberty, from the Reformation under Queen Elizabeth to the Act of Uniformity in 1662, 3 vols., 1813.

Boehringer, F., Die Kirche Christi und ihre Zeugen, oder die Kirchengeschichte in Biographieen, Zurich, 12 vols., 1842–1858, 2nd edit., Stuttgart 1873, etc. [Beginning with Ignatius and the Apostolic Fathers, and coming down to Reformation times, the history of the Church is grouped around prominent men; the biographies are well written and scholarly.]

Baum, Christoffel, Hagenbach, etc., Leben und ausgewählte Schriften der Väter und Begründer der reformirten Kirche, 10 vols., Elberfeld 1857–1862.

Nitzsch, K. J. (editor), Leben und ausgewühlte Schriften der Väter und Begrümder der lutheranischen Kirche, 8 vols., Elberfeld 1861–1875. Hook, W. F., Lires of the Archbishops of Canterbury from St. Anselm to Juxon, 12 vols., Bentley, 1860-1876.

Lear, H. L. Sidney, Christian Biographies, 9 vols. 12mo, 1877–1890.

Madame Louise de France, Daughter of Louis XV., known also as the Mother Térèse de St. Augustin.

A Dominican Artist: a Sketch of the Life of the Rev. Père Besson, of the Order of St. Dominic.

Henri Perreyve, A. Gratry.

St. Francis de Sales, Bishop and Prince of Geneva.

The Revival of Priestly Life in the Seventeenth Century in France.

A Christian Painter of the Nineteenth Century.

Bossuet and his Contemporaries. Fénelon, Archbishop of Cambrai. Henri Dominique Lacordaire.

The Fathers for English Readers, 1878–1890, 12mo, Society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge.

Leo the Great, Charles Gore.

Gregory the Great, J. Barmby.
Saint Ambrose: his Life, Times, and

Teaching, Robinson Thornton.
Saint Athanasius: his Life and Times,
R. Wheler Bush.

Saint Augustine, E. L. Cutts. Saint Basil the Great, R. T. Smith. Saint Bernard, Abbot of Clairvaux,

A.D. 1091–1153, S. J. Eales. Saint Hilary of Poitiers and Saint Martin of Tours, J. Gibson Cazenove. Saint Jerome, E. L. Cutts.

Saint John of Damascus, J. H. Lupton. Saint Patrick: his Life and Teaching, E. J. Newell.

Synesius of Cyrene, Philosopher and Bishop, Alice Gardner.

The Apostolic Fathers, H. S. Holland.
The Defenders of the Faith; or, The
Christian Apologists of the Second
and Third Centuries, F. Watson.

The Venerable Bede, G. F. Browne.

Burgon, John Wm., Lives of Twelve Good Men: (1) Martin Joseph Routh; (2) Hugh James Rose; (3) Chas. Marriott; (4) Edward Hawkins; (5) Samuel Wilberforce; (6) Richard Lynch Cotton; (7) Richard Greswell; (8) Henry Ortarius Coxe; (9) Henry Longueville Mansel; (10) William Jacobson; (11) Charles Page Eden; (12) Chas. Longuet Higgins, 2 vols., 1888, 4th edit. 1889. American Religious Leaders, Boston and New York, 12mo, 1890– 1892.

Jonathan Edwards, A. V. G. Allen. Dr. Muhlenberg, William Wilberforce Newton. Wilbur Fisk, George Prentice.

Francis Wayland, J. O. Murray.

Charles G. Finney, G. Frederick Wright. Mark Hopkins, Franklin Carter. Henry Boynton Smith, L. F. Stearns.

Leaders of Religion, edited by H. C. Beeching, 12mo, Methuen, commenced in 1891, and still issuing.

Cardinal Newman, R. H. Hutton. John Wesley, J. H. Overton. Bishop Wilberforce, G. W. Daniel. Cardinal Manning, A. W. Hutton. Charles Simeon, H. C. G. Moule. John Keble, Walter Lock. Thomas Chalmers, Mrs. Oliphant.
Lancelot Andrewes, R. L. Ottley.
Augustine of Canterbury, E. L. Cutts.
William Laud, W. H. Hutton.
John Knox, Florence A. Maccunn.
John Howe, Robert F. Horton.

#### (b.) Individual Biographies.

Note .-- Only those biographies are inserted here which are noteworthy both from the intrinsic importance of their subjects and the excellence of their treatment.

Abelard—Wilkens, C. A., Peter Abülard, Bremen 1855.

Deutsch, S. M., Peter Abülard, ein kritischer Theologe des 12ten Jahrhunderts, Berlin 1883.

RÉMUSAT, CHAS. DE, Abelard, 2 vols., Paris 1845.

Anselm—Hasse, F. R., Anselm ron Canterbury, 2 vols., Leipsic 1843-1852; translated but abridged by Wm. Turner under the title, Life of St. Anselm, 12mo, Rivingtons, 1850.

Rémusat, Chas. de, Saint Anselme de Cantorbéry, tableau de la vie monastique et de la lutte du pouvoir spirituel avec le pouvoir

temporel au onzième siècle, new edition, Paris 1856.

Rule, Martin, The Life and Times of St. Anselm, Archbishop of Canterbury and Primate of the Britains, 2 vols., Kegan Paul, 1883.

Athanasius—Mohler, J. A., Athanasius der Grosse und die Kirche seiner Zeit, 2nd edit., Mainz 1844.

Augustine—Bindemann, C., Der heilige Augustinus, 3 vols., Berlin 1844-1869.

Poujolat, M., Histoire de Saint Augustin, ourrage couronné par l'Académie Française, 6th edit., Tours 1875.

Dorner, A., Augustinus, sein theologisches System und seine religionsphilosophische Anschauung, Berlin 1873.

Becket—Robertson, Jas. C., Materials for the History of Thomas Becket, Archbishop of Canterbury, Murray, 1859.

Bernard-Neander, A., Der heilige Bernard und seine Zeit, 3rd edit., Gotha 1865. [See Bibliothek theol. Klassiker, § 15 (3.).]

Morrison, Jas. C., The Life and Times of St. Bernard, a.D. 1091-

1153, new edit., Macmillan, 1868.

STORRS, RICHARD S., Bernard of Clairvaux, the Times, the Man, and his Work, Hodder, 1892.

Bunyan, John-Brown, John, John Bunyan, His Life, Times, and Work, Isbister, 1885, 5th edit. 1895.

Calvin—Henry, Paul, The Life and Times of John Calvin, the Great Reformer, translated from the German of, by Henry Stebbing, 2 vols., Whittaker, 1849.

Bungener, Félix, Calvin, his Life, his Labours, and his Writings, translated from the French of, T. & T. Clark, 1863.

Willis, R., Servetus and Calvin, a Study of an Important Epoch in the Early History of the Reformation, Henry S. King, 1877.

Chrysostom—Neander, A., Der heilige Johannes Chrysostomus, 3rd edit., 2 vols., Berlin 1858; translated by C. J. Stapleton under the title, The Life of John Chrysostom, Archbishop of Constantinople, Bohn 1845.

Stephens, W. R. W., Saint John Chrysostom, his Life and Times, a Sketch of the Church and the Empire in the Fourth Century, 3rd edit., Murray, 1887.

Clement of Alexandria—Kaye, John, Some Account of the Writings and Opinions of Clement of Alexandria, Rivingtons,

1835.

Erasmus—Froude, Jas. Anthony, Life and Letters of Erasmus,

Longmans, 1894, new edit. 1895.

François d'Assise—Saint François d'Assise, i., Vie de Saint François; ii., Saint François après sa mort, various authors, and many illustrations, 4to, Paris 1885.

Sabatier, Paul, Vie de S. François d'Assise, Paris, 1894; 12th edit. 1895; translated by Louise Seymour, Hodder, 1896.

Gregory of Nazianzum—Ullmann, C., Gregorius von Nazianz, der Theologe, 2nd edit., Gotha 1867.

Benoit, A., Saint Grégoire de Nazianze, sa vie, ses œuvres, et son époque, Paris 1877.

Hildebrand—Geroerer, A. F., Papst Gregor VII. und seine Zeitalter, 7 vols. and Index, Schaffhausen, 1859-1864.

Hutten, Ulrich ron-Strauss, D. F., Life and Times of Ulrich ron

Hutten, Daldy & Isbister, 1874.

Huss-Gillett, E. H., The Life and Times of John Huss, or the Bohemian Reformer of the Fifteenth Century, 2 vols., Boston 1863.

Justin Martyr-Kaye, John, Some Account of the Writings and Opinions of Justin Martyr, 3rd edit., Rivingtons, 1853.

Aubé, Barth., Saint Justin, Philosophe et Martyr, étude critique

sur l'apologétique chrétienne au II. siècle, Paris 1875.

Knox, John-M'Crie, Thos., Life of John Knox, containing illustrations of the History of the Reformation in Scotland, with biographical notices of the principal reformers, and sketches of the progress of literature in Scotland during the sixteenth century, and an appendix consisting of original papers, a new edition edited by his son, vol. i. of The Works of Thomas M'Crie, Blackwood, 1855.

Lanfranc-Crozals, J. de, Lanfranc, archevêque de Cantorbéry, sa

vie, son enseignement, sa politique, Paris 1877.

Luther—Koestlin, Julius, Martin Luther, sein Leben und seine Schriften, 3rd edit., 2 vols., Elberfeld 1883. [Longmans' edition is a translation of an abbreviation.]

Kuhn, Félix, Luther, sa Vie et son Œuvre, 3 vols., Paris 1883,

1884.

Origen—Redepenning, E. R., Origenes, Darstellung seines Leben und seiner Lehre, 2 vols., Bonn 1841-1846.

Saronarola-Madden, R., The Life and Martyrdom of Saronarola, 2 vols., Murray, 1854.

VILLARI, PASQUALE, Life and Times of Savonarola, translated by Linda Villari, 2 vols., Unwin, 1890.

Schleiermacher—Aus Schleiermacher's Leben, In Briefen, 4 vols., 2nd edit., Berlin 1860–1863; also, The Life of Schleiermacher, as unfolded in his autobiography and letters, translated from the German by Frederica Rovan, 2 vols., Smith, Elder, & Co., 1860.

Spener—Grünberg, Paul, Philipp Jakob Spener, vol. i., Göttingen

1893.

Thomas à Kempis—Kettlewell, S., Thomas à Kempis and the Brothers of Common Life, Paul, 2 vols., 1882.

Thomas Aquinas—Werner, K., Der heilige Thomas von Aquina,

3 vols., Regensburg 1859.

Wesley—Southey, Robt., Life of John Wesley, and Rise and Progress of Methodism, 2 vols., 1820; various editions since.

Tyerman, L., The Life and Times of the Rev. John Wesley, Founder of the Methodists, 3 vols., Hodder, 1870–1871, 6th edit. 1890.

Whitefield—Tyerman, L., The Life of the Rev. George Whitefield,

2 vols., Hodder, 1877.

Wiclif—Vaughan, Robert, The Life and Opinions of John de Wycliffe, illustrated principally from his unpublished manuscripts, with a preliminary view of the papal system, and of the state of the Protestant doctrine in Europe, to the commencement of the fourteenth century, 2 vols., Hatchard, 1828; also, John de Wycliffe, a Monograph, with some account of the Wycliffe MSS. in Oxford, Cambridge, the British Museum, Lambeth Palace, and Trinity College, Dublin, Seeleys, 1853.

Lechler, G. V., Johann von Wiclif und die Vorgeschichte der Reformation, 2 vols., Leipsic 1872; also, John Wicklif and his English Precursors, translated from the German, with additional

notes, by Peter Lorimer, new edit., Kegan Paul, 1881.

Zwingli-Moerikofer, J. C., Ulrich Zwingli nach den urkundlichen

Quellen, 2 vols., Leipsic 1867-1869.

BAUR, August, Zwingli's Theologie, ihr Werden and ihr System, vol. i., Halle 1885. [Gives (1) an account of Zwingli's development; (2) an analysis of his writings in chronological order; and (3) a systematic treatment of his theology.]

# (20.) Branches—History of Christian Doctrine.

# (a.) History of Christian Doctrine generally.

Schwane, J., Dogmengeschichte, see Theologische Bibliothek, § 15 (3.). Hagenbach, K. R., Lehrbuch der Dogmengeschichte, 1st edit., Leipsie 1841, 5th edit. 1867; also, A Text-Book of the History of Dortrines by K. R. Hagenbach, the Edinburgh translation of C. W. Buch, revised with large additions from the fourth German edition and other sources, by H. B. Smith, 2 vols., New York 1861; also, A History of Christian Doctrines, by the late K. R. Hagenbach, translated from the fifth and last German edition, with additions from other sources, with an

introduction by E. H. Plumptre, 3 vols., T. & T. Clark, 1880–1881. [The best handbook; the latter translation embodies all the noteworthy additions of the previous translations, with

many additions peculiar to itself.

Haag, Eugéne, Histoire des Dogmes Chrétiens: 1st part, Histoire Générale, 2nd edit., 4to, Paris 1862; 2nd part, Histoire Spéciale, 4to, 1862. [Written in a more consecutive style than Hagenbach; the first part shows much insight and power of grouping.]

Cunningham, Wm., Historical Theology, a Review of the Principal Discussions in the Christian Church since the Apostolic Age, 2 vols., 2nd edit., T. & T. Clark, 1864. [Clear, massive,

concise, accurate; adopts the lecture form.]

BAUR, F. C., Vorlesungen über die christliche Dogmengeschichte, edited by F. F. Baur, 3 vols., Leipsic 1865–1867. [The first vol. deals with the ancient Church; the second with the Middle Age; and the third with the Modern Era: marked by all the research

of the author, and generalisation, often hasty, alas!]

Shedd, W. G. T., A History of Christian Doctrine, 2 vols., T. & T. Clark, 1869; 8th edit., New York 1884. [Follows a topical plan, treating in order—of the influence of philosophical systems upon the construction of Christian doctrine, of the history of the defence of Christianity, of the history of the doctrines of God, of man, of salvation, and of the last things, and of the history of symbols; scholarly, definite, and well written.]

Thomasius, G., Die christliche Dogmengeschichte als Entwicklungs-Geschichte des kirchlichen Lehrbegriffs, 2 vols., Erlangen 1874– 1876, 2nd edit., by N. Bonwetsch and R. Seeberg, 1880. [The first vol. deals with the doctrines of the Ancient Church, and the second with the Middle Age and the Reformation: suggestive and

original.

Crippen, T. G., A Popular Introduction to the History of Christian Doctrine, T. & T. Clark, 1883. [A good popular introduction, following the topical order, and presenting the various views which have been held on—the sources of religious knowledge, the being and attributes of God, the Trinity, creation and providence, angels and spirits, the nature of man, sin and its consequences, the person of Christ, the atonement, the appropriation of divine grace, the church and the means of grace, and the last things; the book has some scholarly appendices.]

Reusch, F. H., Der Index der verbotenen Bücher, ein Beitrag zur Kirchen-und Literaturgeschichte, 2 vols., Bonn 1883–1885. [A guide to the books condemned by the Church of Rome, mainly

from the Reformation to the present.

ALLEN, A. V. G., The Continuity of Christian Thought: a study of modern theology in the light of its history, 1885, 3rd edit. 1886, Ward, Lock. [A brief survey of the Greek, Latin, Mediæval, Reformation, Eighteenth and Nineteenth Century Theologies.]

Sheldon, Henry C., History of Christian Doctrine, 2 vols., New York 1886. [Vol. i., from A.D. 90 to 1517; vol. ii., from 1517 to

1885.]

HARNACK, ADOLF, Lehrbuch der Dogmengeschichte, 1886, see Sammlung theologischer Lehrbücher, § 15 (3.); and for translation as History of Dogma see Theological Translation Library, § 15 (3.).

- Dogmengeschichte, 1889, see Grundriss der theologischen Wissenschaften, § 15 (3.); translated by Edwin Knox Mitchell

as Outlines of the History of Dogma, Hodder, 1893.

Schmid, H., Lehrbuch der Dogmengeschichte, 4th edit. by Albert

Hauck, Nördlingen 1887.

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### (b.) History of Christian Doctrine to the Council of Nicea.

Beausobre, Isaac de, Histoire Critique de Manichée et du Manichéisme, 2 vols., Amsterdam 1734-1739.

Matter, J., Histoire Critique du Gnosticisme, 3 vols., 2nd edit.,

Paris 1843-1844.

Flügel, G., Mani, seine Lehre und seine Schriften, Leipsic 1862.

Hilgenfeld, A., Bardesanes, der letzte Gnostiker, Leipsic 1864.

Mansel, H. L., Gnostic Heresies of the First and Second Centuries, Murray, 1876.

Soyres, John De, Montanism and the Primitive Church, a Study in the Ecclesiastical History of the Second Century, the Hulsean Prize Essay, 1877, Cambridge 1878.

Sprinzl, J., Theologie der apostolischen Väter, Vienna 1880.

### (c.) History of Christian Doctrine from A.D. 325-800.

Soames, Henry, An Inquiry into the Doctrines of the Anglo-Saxon Church, Bampton Lecture for 1830, see § 15 (3.).

Wiggers, G. F., Versuch einer pragmatischen Darstellung des Augustinismus und Pelagianismus nach ihre geschichtlichen Entwickelung, 2 vols., Hamburg 1833.

Thierry, A., Nestorius et Eutyches, les grandes hérésies du V. siècle, Paris 1878.

Klasen, Fr., Die innere Entwicklung der Pelagianismus, Freiburg 1882.

Voelter, Dan., Der Ursprung des Donatismus nach den Quellen untersucht und dargestellt, Freiburg 1883.

Koelling, W., Gesch. d. arianischen Hüresie von 325-381, 2 vols., Gütersloh 1874 and 1885.

# (d.) History of Christian Doctrine from A.D. 800-1517.

KLEUTGEN, FATHER, La Philosophie Scolastique exposée et défendre, traduit avec l'autorisation de l'anteur par Constant Sierp, 4 vols., Paris 1868-1870. [Compare other works by this author in (13.) of this section.]

Werner, K., Die Scholastik des späteren Mittelalters, vol. i.,

Johannes Duns Scotus, Vienna 1881.

Dupeyrat, A., Manuductio ad scholasticam, in primis vero Thom-

isticam, philosophiam, Paris 1883.

Hauréau, B., Histoire de la Philosophie Scolastique, 2 vols., Paris 1872, 1880.

## (e.) History of Christian Doctrine from A.D. 1517 to the Present.

Gass, W., Geschichte der protestantischen Dogmatik in ihrem Zusammenhange mit der Theologie überhaupt, 4 vols., Berlin 1854–1867. [Treats of German theology.]

Heppe, H., Dogmatik des deutschen Protestantismus im sechszehnten

Jahrhundert, Gotha, 3 vols., 1857.

Frank, Gustav, Geschichte der protestantischen Theologie, 2 vols.,

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Schwarz, Carl, Zur Geschichte der neuesten Theologie, 4th edit., Leipsic 1869. [An introduction to the present phase of German

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macher to Strauss; from Strauss to the present.]

— History of German Theology in the Nineteenth Century, translated and edited by W. Hastie, T. & T. Clark, 1889. [First period, from Schleiermacher to Strauss; second period, from Strauss to the present time.]

Astié, J. F., La Théologie Allemande Contemporaine, Geneva 1874. Rogers, J. G., Church Systems of England in the Nineteenth Century, Hodder, 1881. [See Congregational Union Lectures, § 15

(3.).

LANDERER, MAXIMILIAN ALBERT, Neueste Dogmengeschichte, von Semler his auf die Gegenwart, edited by Paul Zeller, Heilbronn, 1881.

PFLEIDEREE, Otto, The Development of Theology in Germany since Kant, and its Progress in Great Britain since 1825, translated under the author's supervision by J. Frederick Smith, Sonnenschein, 1890. Maury, Léon, Le Réveil Religieux dans l'Eglise Réformée à Genève et en France, 1810-1850, étude historique et dogmatique, 2 vols., 1892.

Eucken, Rudolf, Die Grundbegriffe der Gegenwart, historisch und

kritisch entwickelt, 2nd edit., Leipsic 1893.

Frank, F. H. R., Geschichte und Kritik der weneren Theologie insbesondere der systematischen, seit Schleiermacher, edited by P. Schaarschmidt, Erlangen 1894.

### (f.) The History of the Doctrine of God, and of Inspiration.

Burton, Edward, Testimonies of the Ante-Nicene Fathers to the Doctrine of the Trinity and of the Divinity of the Holy Ghost, Oxford 1831.

BAUR, F. C., Die christliche Lehre ron der Dreieinigkeit und Menschwerdung Gottes in ihrer geschichtlichen Entwicklung, 3 vols., Tübingen 1841–43. [Invaluable for its research, but marred by its Hegelianism.]

Meier, G. A., Die Lehre von der Trinität in ihrer historischen

Entwickelung, 2 vols., Hamburg and Gotha 1844.

Kahnis, K. A., Die Lehre vom heiligen Geist, part 1, Halle 1847. [All published: useful, though a torso.]

Hergenroether, J., Die Lehre von der göttlichen Dreieinigkeit nach dem heil. Gregor von Nazianz, Freiburg 1850. [Romanist.]

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Swete, E. B., On the History of the Procession of the Holy Spirit from the Apostolic Age to the Death of Charlemagne, Bell, 1876.

Kauffmann, D., Geschichte der Attributenlehre in der jüdischen Religionsphilosophie des Mittelalters von Saadja bis Maimuni, Gotha 1877.

Runze, Georg, Der ontologische Gottesbeweis, kritische Darstellung seiner Geschichte etc., see § 20 (13.).

Rabaud, Edduard, Histoire de la Doctrine de l'Inspiration des Saintes Ecritures dans les Pays de Langue Française de la Réforme à nos Jours, Paris 1883.

Koelling, Wilhelm, Die Lehre von der Theopneustie, Breslau 1891.
[Mainly a survey of the history of the doctrine from the Apostolic

Age to the Present.

Holzhey, Karl, Die Inspiration der hl. Schrift in der Anschauung des Mittelalters, Munich 1895.

### (g.) The History of the Doctrine of Spirits.

Roskoff, Gustav, Geschichte des Tenfels, 2 vols., Leipsic 1869. Conway, Moncure 1)., Demonology and Devil-lore, 2 vols., Chatto & Windus, 1879.

## (h.) The History of the Doctrine of the World.

Moeller, E. W., Geschichte der Cosmologie in der griechischen Kirche bis auf Origenes, Halle 1860.

### (i.) The History of the Doctrine of Man.

Luthardt, C. E., Die Lehre vom freien Willen und seinem Verhältniss zur Gnade, in ihrer geschichtl. Entwicklung dargestellt, Leipsic 1863.

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destination, 2nd edit., Murray, 1878.

Zoeckler, O., Die Lehre rom Urstand des Menschen, geschichtlich und dogmatisch-apologetisch untersucht, Gütersloh 1880.

Rüetschi, Rud., Geschichte und Kritik der kirchlichen Lehre von der ursprünglichen Volkommenheit und vom Sündenfall, Leiden 1881.

Wendt, H. H., Die christliche Lehre von der menschlichen Volkommenheit, Göttingen 1882.

Derenbourg, J., L'Immortalité de l'ime chez les Juifs, Paris 1883.

## (j.) The History of the Doctrine of Christ and Salvation.

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neueste, Tübingen 1838.

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## DIVISION V.

#### COMPARATIVE THEOLOGY.

§ 74.

NAME, DEFINITION, AND PROBLEM OF COMPARATIVE THEOLOGY.

TITHERTO four great sections of theology have been passed under rapid review. We now approach the fifth section, which from its high importance may be called the goal of the four previous branches, and the starting-point of the final branch. Comparative Theology, or as many would say, systematic theology, utilises the results both of Biblical doctrine and of the history of doctrine, not even disdaining to receive some important truths from natural and from ethnic theology. Nay, remembering that the doctrines of natural theology afford the highest results of that branch of religious science, and at the same time that the doctrines of ethnic theology present the supreme products of the study of the heathen religions, whilst similarly Biblical doctrine is the cream of Biblical science, just as historical dogmatics opens up the grandest lessons of the history of the Church, it is not too much to say that all the preceding branches receive at once their explanation and their apotheosis in comparative theology. In other words, the four preceding branches of theology, which severally culminate in their doctrinal teaching, supply the data from which comparative theology draws its inductions. From the data which these branches afford, comparative theology infers a system of reasoned and certain truth.

Whatever exception be taken to this NAME of comparative theology, it manifestly describes the method of the science in question. The science is distinctively a comparative science. It is true that some may regard the term "comparative" as already too much in vogue to express what is often called the science of comparative religion, that is to say, what we have called the data and inductions of ethnic theology. Now, it is granted that there is ground for describing these facts and inferences as comparative theology: but, seeing that any lasting comparison must necessarily take account of the facts and inferences of Biblical and ecclesiastical theology as well, is there any good reason for refusing to extend the name, as we certainly must extend the method, to include a comparison where Christianity plays a part? On the other hand, some will probably prefer other names. to some systematic theology will appear most appropriate. The term indubitably has a long usage in its favour. Nevertheless this branch of theology has no claim to a monopoly in the term, seeing that all theology, being science, is systematic. Some again will cleave to the name doctrinal theology; but this technicality seems more suitable, as will presently appear, for one of the three great subdivisions of comparative theology. Some may even regard the name dogmatic theology as the best. Here again, on the one hand, there is the undesirable association of the word dogma, and on the other hand, even supposing dogma to be understood to mean no more than doctrine, dogmatic or doctrinal theology seems a more distinctive appellation for the science which deals with doctrines, and with doctrines alone, the second subdivision of our science. On the whole, therefore, comparative theology, which bears its meaning on its front, seems the more desirable name. Comparative Theology results from the rigorous application of the comparative method to all inductions concerning the supernal.

Comparative Theology, then, takes the doctrinal data afforded by natural, ethnic, Biblical, and ecclesiastical theology, and, by critical comparison, endeavours to build up a system of truth concerning God and man and their relations. Its

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method is comparison. Its data are the inductions of the preceding branches of theology. Its aim is valid inference. Its ideal is a system of valid inference. Comparative theology, which would compare the truths resulting from the four sciences which provide its data, and construct therefrom a system of religious truth, is, in short, a science (an orderly and reasoned presentation of the general truths deducible from its specific class of facts); it is a theological science (its truths concern religion); it is a comparative theological science (it compares religious truths of various kinds and orders, so as to build up a system of religious truth).

The PROBLEM, then, of comparative theology is to compare all the data afforded by natural, ethnic, Biblical, and ecclesiastical theology, and to construct therefrom a system of religious truth.

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#### UTILITY OF COMPARATIVE THEOLOGY.

From what has been said as to the problem Comparative Theology aims at resolving, the utility of such a science is manifest. How wide must be the influence of a branch of knowledge the purpose of which is to present in a reasoned and systematic form all the legitimate inferences which can be drawn from the religious convictions of mankind! How weighty must be the results of a science which endeavours to propound as reasoned and ordered truth all that is known by man of his spiritual relations!

For, first, seeing that truth of any kind is its own reward, at once satisfying, quickening, enlarging, and strengthening the mind, and especially truth that is systematised, what shall be said of the intrinsic value of so inexpressibly important a branch of truth as religion? If truth concerning the supernatural relations of man, imaging the past, explaining the present, and forecasting the future, is attainable in any degree, such truth, however limited or however faulty, especially if reasoned and systematised, must possess an incalculable interest for the human race. Knowledge of the natural

world, however thrilling, or knowledge of the natural self, however precious, can never be comparable with knowledge of nature or of self as associated with God. To fasten the last link of being to the foot of Jupiter's chair, as the ancients would have said, is to strengthen every link.

This leads to saying, SECONDLY, that all the previous branches of theology receive in comparative theology a nobler setting. If the truths of natural theology, for example, possess their own peculiar capacity of edification, as well as impart a distinctive pleasure, will this delight or this teaching be lessened by interweaving those truths into a systematic presentation, which at once utilises them, gives them their due prominence, co-ordinates them with all other religious truth, and makes them minister to the production of a great scientific whole, more cogent because more connected? Will not the truths of ethnic theology again become aggrandised when their due place and weight are assigned them in the system of religious truth? In this book no shadow of doubt will be thrown upon the transcendent claims of the Bible, the record of exceptional divine revelation, the inspired instrument in the proclamation of renovating divine mercy; but do not even the truths of the Bible receive an added importance, when, appropriately placed in the complete scheme of religious truth, they manifestly supplement and complete the earlier revelations given in nature and in the extra-Christian world, and whilst contributing their part to the systematised whole, they evidently receive as well as give support by their association with other religious truths? The history of doctrines, again, in the Christian Church is the crown of ecclesiastical theology; but fascinating and enlarging as is the study of this branch of religious history, it must yield in interest and instructiveness to comparative theology; for, on the one hand, comparative theology adjudicates as to the truth or falsity of the various doctrines which the history of doctrine simply presents without bias, and, on the other hand, time, which plays a most important part in the history of doctrines, has no place in the study of comparative theology. Whatever interest, in short, lies in the inductions of the four preceding branches of theology is necessarily augmented in a science which takes those very

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inductions, and presents them in their appropriate relation and due proportion in an organic system of truth.

THIRDLY, the systematic form of comparative theology has both its intrinsic and its probative value. Facts are interesting, but inferences from a wide range of facts are much more so. Isolated reasonings are precious; but innumerable reasonings blended into one great scientific whole are priceless. Now it is just with reasonings from a wide range of facts, and with inferences which have become affiliated and systematised, that comparative theology deals. For intellectual interest alone, therefore, few sciences can compare with comparative theology; but when we remember the exalted practical bearings of the truths it teaches, and superadd to the mere intellectual interest that higher personal concern, how magnetic is the spell of our science! And how probative is its form! A fact here or a fact there may be questioned; an opinion in one place or an opinion in another may seem open to doubt; but shape the facts and theories into a connected whole, and their strength is augmented a hundredfold. Made into a bundle, the separate sticks become infrangible. By interweaving, slight threads become capable of strain. Bricks and wood and mortar and glass and hardware, in themselves insignificant, may rightly attract notice when they have become a building. Indeed, one of the readiest ways of removing ideas from the realm of opinion is to blend them if possible into a consistent whole. Similarly, the arrangement of all doctrines in a luminous and mutually supporting order is of the highest utility, facilitating the perception of the relationship, whether of priority, co-ordination, or consecution, of each point of doctrine to all others, and rendering the recognition easy of universal as contrasted with local belief, of abiding as contrasted with temporary conviction, of vital as contrasted with non-essential truth. Any Christian believer may rejoice in isolated experiences and individual opinions, but the student of comparative theology may have the deeper and more lasting joy of impregnable and catholic belief; and even where this certain belief is as yet unattainable, the knowledge has its worth which knows how much of any given problem has been and how much has still to be solved. Consistency is always preferable to inconsistency; thoroughness of research is always more desirable than ignorance of bearings; the product of reason is better than the product of feeling; nay, the very consciousness of difficulties not yet overcome is more excellent than the tyro's dread of unforeseen contingencies, or even than his juvenile security, which, to say the least, is untried.

FOURTHLY, there is a high value in the accurate formulas

of comparative theology. Necessary as it is to commence the study of any subject by a careful and precise apprehension of definitions, let it never be forgotten that these definitions which are the first objects of acquaintance to the learner are the last objects of discovery to the investigator. The whole progress of science might be characterised by a history of definitions. Elementary as these definitions often appear, the history of their framing is the history of great controversies. Definitions are the high-water marks of present knowledge, which are exceeded again and again as the tide continues rising. Definitions are not readily obtained. They indicate very decided advance. As Dr. Whewell admirably said in his Novum Organum Renovatum, "The writers on logic, in the Middle Ages, made definition the last stage in the progress of knowledge, and in this arrangement at least, the history of science, and the philosophy derived from the history, confirm their speculative views." Darwin works for many years before he is able to put forth what is virtually a new definition of the origin of species. Definitions of heat and light and colour are occupying the attention of our foremost physicists. In a word, no discovery in science is ever really made until it has been put into a definition, that definition supplying at once both a means of knowing what the discovery really is, and of testing its reality. Now doctrinal formulas, or dogmas as the more technical term has it, are the definitions of comparative theology. They register discoveries. They have only been drawn up after long inquiry, and often after protracted conflict. They are as useful to the teacher or the learner as the definitions of chemistry or the formulated results of any other inductive branch of investigation.

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These doctrinal formulas mark the state of present knowledge, and point the way for future research. Where they are true to the facts of the case, they can always be utilised with profit; and where they do not harmonise with all the facts known, they call loudly for amendment. What, for example, is the long controversy upon the nature of the atonement but a search for a true definition? Where lies the preciousness of the Nicene Creed but in the fact of its being a precies definition of the mystery of the Trinity? What is catholic truth but a series of definitions universally accepted by Christians? All the results of comparative theology are summarised in doctrinal formulas, and whether they are adequate formulas or inadequate, their utility is manifest. If they are adequate, they accurately express religious truth, which is at once so precious and so difficult of attainment. If they are not adequate, it is around these definitions that truth-seekers must gather, the rival armies continuing their warfare until the true flag is victorious.

FIFTHLY, the study of comparative theology has its practical usefulness. All truth enriches practice, and comparative theology which searches after religious truth should abundantly enrich religious practice. The more nearly we rethink the divine thoughts, the more nearly should we repeat the divine acts. It is true that upon many doctrinal knowledge has a lamentable hardening effect; but it is to be feared that this is the result either of a sense of perfect knowledge already attained, or of the little knowledge which is always dangerous. In either case, the one corrective necessary is the conviction of the need of further study. Surely the investigation of religious truth should impart a refinement of spiritual taste! Surely the knowledge in any degree of our supernatural relations should increase susceptibility of conscience! Surely familiarity with the principles of present results of the long investigation into divine truth should impart a spiritual wisdom, which detects sin in its most secret form, which perceives error in its most successful disguise, and which sobers the judgment by making present acts a part of an eternal history! The greater the knowledge of religious truth, the more worthy and the more easy should be

the just conduct of life. In one respect, at any rate, the study of comparative theology will be of great practical value. Dangerous errors in belief, and that theological narrowness which is itself so gigantic an error, more frequently arise from limitation of view than from any other cause, and are best cured, therefore, by such a study as this of comparative theology, which, by showing the entire range of the subject, by emphasising beliefs which are unanimously held, by disclosing beliefs which are local, immature, or superseded, checks loose modes of thought, represses declamatory forms of expression, and condemns the fanatical and hard spirit.

And, LASTLY, a study of comparative theology will strengthen the judgment as to the best methods of communicating and defending Christian truth, and will therefore render the highest service to the religious teacher. To be positive where truth is certain, and which is the same thing, to be positive where error is certain; to be free from dogmatism where truth is not so certain, and which is again the same thing, not to be dogmatic where error is not so pronounced; this is the wise temper of the public teacher. He betrays his cause who is over-positive about contingent truth; just as he betrays his cause who is under-positive about assured truth. Now this judicial temper, neither shrinking from positive utterance, nor afraid of withholding decision, is born both of knowledge and of practice, of wide knowledge of bearings and facts, and long experience of actual contact with the requisite class of evidence. Would the religious teacher learn where he may be rightly categorical, let him consult comparative theology for its assured results. Would he learn where he will be wisely hypothetical, let him again consult comparative theology, which will guide him as surely to what is as yet unsettled. And what is true of the temper of the teacher is true of his method. Let him present in popular form what the science of comparative theology presents in scientific manner, and his statement of truth will be as wise as his defence of truth will be masterly.

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#### HISTORY OF THE STUDY OF COMPARATIVE THEOLOGY.

But before we proceed with the exposition of this section of theology, it will be well to cast some rapid glances upon the history of the subject. The history will make plain that opinions have varied largely upon the data, upon the classes of data, from which comparative theology should draw its inferences, just as opinions have varied largely as to the inferences themselves. Indeed, the course of the comparative studies of the past shows with abundant clearness that at bottom the greatest doctrinal controversies have been controversies as to standpoints, or, to adopt the phrase just used, as to the classes of data available for inference, Romanism, Lutheranism, Calvinism, Rationalism, Mysticism, what are these at bottom but advocates of the eligibility of various classes of data,—Scripture, tradition, reason, the inner light,—for the framing of doctrines?

ORIGEN was the father of comparative theology, for his great work, Περλ' Αρχών, extant, alas! only in the inaccurate translation of Rufinus, De Principiis, was the first attempt at a systematic presentation of the truth derivable from the several sources of supernatural knowledge, and pioneer work though it was, and individualistic upon many points, can only be read to-day with respect. Natural and ethnic theology as well as Biblical supplied him with data. Augustine followed in the footsteps of Origen, giving very suggestive outlines of a system of theology in his De Doctrina Christiana, De Civitate Dei. De Fide ac Symbolo, and De Ecclesiae Dogmatibus. Similar attempts at systematic form were made in the Latin Church by Fulgentius of Ruspe, by Gennadius and Junilius, and in the Greek Church by Gregory of Nyssa, by Cyril of Jerusalem, and by Theodoret. The transition from the Patristic to the Scholastic Age is seen in Isidore of Seville, whose Sententia displays the character of both epochs. However, in the Patristic Age, the time had not yet come for

any perfection of system. Detail must precede generalisation; minute inspection of parts must go before broad survey of wholes; and separate doctrines must be formulated before a system can be framed with wisdom. The great labours of the Patristic Age were upon individual doctrines. By the arguments of polemics and the debates of councils, the leading problems of the doctrines of God and of Christ and of man were not only stated, but conducted some considerable way towards solution. Interesting, therefore, as are its systematic productions as historical monuments, and beautiful as they are in the leading instances as literary masterpieces, powerful even as they are in isolated expositions, they are as systems necessarily marked by the debility as well as the vigour of the premature. In one respect there was more liberality of view. A larger use was made of data derived from the study of nature and of heathenism than was common in the next age.

Passing on to the Scholastic Age, comparative theology now came into the hands of "doctores," not "patres," of men marked by systematisation rather than origination. This new period commenced with the publication of the "Exposition of the Orthodox Faith" of John of Damascus, for from that time, as Hagenbach says, "there was manifested a more definite attempt to arrange in a systematic whole, and to prove dialectically, what had been obtained by a series of conflicts." However, in this age, the Eastern or Greek Church, which was already pursuing a peculiar course, produced no further dogmatic work of importance. The principal works of the age were the Sententiarum Libri Quatuor of Peter of Lombardy, the Introductio in Theologiam and the Theologia Christiana of Peter Abelard, the Summa Universa Theologia of Alexander of Hales, the Summa Theologia of Albert the Great, and the magnificent Summa Summarum of Thomas Aquinas. A tolerable estimate of the activity of the entire period is given in the common division of the scholastic divines into Sententiarii (whose works were mostly methodised collections of passages from the Scriptures and the Fathers, as in the instance of Peter Lombard), into Summistae (or authors of original works, as Aquinas), into Quodlibetarii (or eclectics

like Duns Scotus), and into Mystici (or mystics like Bernard and Bonaventura, who sought to promote vital and practical religion, and who protested against over-speculation in theology). But however varied the theological activity of the time, there is a family likeness amongst all the scholastic theologians. It was at once the virtue and the vice of the time to make the syllogism the type of all science. The scholastics are nothing if not systematic. There is a careful subordination of conclusions to premises everywhere, this is the virtue of the age; but there is too careless an assumption of the truth of the premises, this is the vice. Deduction was rigorously pursued to its logical consequences. The statements of Scripture—and, alas! quite as frequently the declarations of the Fathers and the councils—were made the unquestioned first principles of their doctrinal procedure, their definitions and axioms and postulates; and the whole problem of comparative theology, in their view, was to deduce a series of doctrinal propositions from these assumptions with the rigour and orderliness of Euclid. Scholasticism is, as we have previously said, the science of the papist, silent as to data, subtle as to consequences. Another age had to carry inquiry back from conclusions to premises, from consequences to data, from mathematical method to scientific, from deduction to induction. In the Scholastic Age the main contributions to comparative theology were systematic; the declarations of Scripture and of tradition, as the opinions of the early Fathers and the ecclesiastical councils came to be called, were arranged in order and employed as premises for inference; as yet the question as to the criteria of Christian truth had scarcely come into prominence. To use our previous terminology, the Scholastic Age busied itself with questions as to inferences from the data before them, rather than with problems as to the relative value of classes of data. Let the curious student occupy himself for a few hours with even the finest products of the time in illustration, the writings of Anselm and Aquinas. The tendency of the time was to exalt ecclesiastical data above Biblical, tradition above Scripture.

The new impulse that was required for the renovation of

comparative theology came in the Reformation, from the throes of which exciting time three distinct types of comparative theology arose in THE REFORMATION CENTURY, viz. the Romish, the Lutheran, and the Reformed or Genevan, each of which has since had its characteristic development. Lutheran comparative theology is seen at its best in the Reformation century in Melanchthon's Loci Communes rerum theologicarum seu hypotyposes theologica (which great work passed through various forms from a sort of exposition of the Epistle to the Romans to a complete doctrinal treatise, eighty editions having appeared in the lifetime of the author). Reformed theology, in the same century, is best represented by Zwingli's Commentarius de vera et falsa religione, and by Calvin's great work, his Institutio religionis christiana, the Genevan parallel to Melanchthon's Loci in the variety of its forms, in the frequency of its revisions, and in the number of its editions, to which two epoch-making works may be added, although they belong to an inferior order, Bullinger's Compendium religionis christianæ (1556), Peter Martyr's Loci Communes Theologiæ (1575), Theodore Beza's Quæstionum et responsionum christianarum libellus (1580), and Zanchi's De religione christiana fides (1585). Romish theology is seen in Eck's Enchiridion locorum communium, 1525, etc., and especially in Cardinal Bellarmin's Christianæ doctrinæ explicatio, approved by the Pope in 1598. The classes of data from which Romanism drew were nature, Scripture, and tradition, tradition (or the data of ecclesiastical dogmatics) being the supreme authority. The Lutheran and Reformed theologians were at one in elevating the Bible into the supreme test of religious truth. By no party was ethnic theology longer studied. From the fall of the Roman Empire, in fact, such ethnic arguments and illustrations as are met with in the early Christian Fathers very rarely appear. If in this century no reference is made to the Greek Churches, the reason is that they still continued their own isolated course. As has been previously noted, these Churches had fallen away from the general current of advance at the beginning of the Scholastic period.

The same three types are naturally seen and emphasised in the New Scholastic Age, the seventeenth century,

Rome being represented most ably by Suarez, Commentaria ac disputationes in S. Thomas, and by the great Jansenist Pascal in his Pensées: the Reformed Church by the Calvinists, Alsted in his Theologia didactica (1618), Turrettin in his Institutio theologia elenctica, and Witsius in his Economia Fæderum Dei cum hominibus, 1677, etc., and by the Arminians, Simon Episcopius, Institutiones theologica (1643), and Philip van Limborch, Theologia Christiana, 1686, 6th edit. 1715; and the Lutheran Church by Gerhard, Loci Theologici, in 9 vols. (1610-1625), Georg Calixt, Epitome Theologia (1619), Abraham Calov, Systema locorum theologicorum, in 12 vols. (1655-1677), and Quenstedt, Theologia didactico-polemica scu systema theologiæ (1685). According to the spirit of the time, each of the three types became during this century more pronounced in its theological position, having each, however, this one feature in common, that each recognised certain creeds as embodying doctrines, which not only define the standpoint of their adherents, but express for all time objective religious truth. During this century two other anti-Calvinistic movements besides Arminianism commenced, namely, Socinianism, best seen in the Catechismus Racoviensis (1605), and Quakerism, seen in Robert Barclay's Theologia vera Apologia (1676). However, during this age there is a tendency everywhere to erect a creed (a part of ecclesiastical theology) into the position of supreme arbiter of religious truth.

From the time of the seventeenth century the history of Protestant comparative theology is most advantageously followed by observing a national classification. The course of theological development comparatively considered may be therefore briefly presented by naming and characterising the principal doctrinal schools in Germany, England, and America. Roman Catholic countries generally have of course retained their confessional peculiarities, even emphasising these in the decrees of the Vatican Council. Good instances of the best comparative works of Roman theologians will be seen in Kuhn, Katholische Dogmatik, four volumes of which have been published, 1859-1868,—in Dieringer, Lehrbuch der katholischen Dogmatik, 5th edit., Mayence 1865,

—in Scheeben, Handbuch der kathol. Dogmatik, 3 vols., 1873–1883,—in Bonal, Institutiones theologicæ ad usum seminariorum, 14th edit., 6 vols. 12mo, Toulouse, 1882,—and in Tepe, Institutiones theologicæ, Paris, vol. i. 1894, vol. ii. 1895, vol. iii. 1896, and still issuing. So, too, the Greek Churches have naturally retained their confessional peculiarities: an excellent view of the theology of the Orthodox Greek Church is seen in Macarius, Théologie Dogmatique Orthodoxe, traduite par un Russe, 2 vols., Paris 1860.

From the time of the great Lutheran theologians of the seventeenth century a most interesting and instructive course of development is manifest in the doctrinal studies of Pro-TESTANT GERMANY. From the iron limits of the Tridentine decrees the Romanist has no appeal, and hence, numerous as have been the German exponents of Romanism in systematic form, they all proceed from a fundamentally identical standpoint: their task is exposition rather than establishment; at least their task is exposition as far as the prominent doctrines of Rome are concerned. A somewhat similar position has also been necessarily taken by the orthodox Lutheran divines. Their recognition of the Liber Concordia, the great Lutheran standard, has also made their doctrinal task very largely a matter of exposition rather than establishment. However, the acceptance by the Lutheran clergy of the Concordienbuch has never been so inflexible as that of the decrees of Trent has been for Romanists, some liberality of interpretation having always been allowed. The doctrinal studies of Germany have therefore usually shown, on the one hand, a pronounced Lutheran type, and at the same time a milder type of Lutheran doctrine into which successive enlargements and adjustments have been introduced under the stress of various religious movements, often in themselves heretical. Lutheranism has never been above learning new truth even from those who preached that truth with much error, and Lutheran theology is richer to-day from the large-mindedness with which the necessity for interpreting its ancient creed in the light of modern discovery has been recognised. variety of movements have tended to fertilise the doctrinal systems emanating from Lutheran divines. Before the

seventeenth century closed, and ere the dogmatising influence of that century had caused too severe a stress to be laid upon right doctrine as contrasted with right life, a great counteractive movement arose in the Pietism, as it is called, of Spener and his school. The Pietists desired that the Church should be a body of saints. They emphasised the need for holiness. They preferred subjective faith to objective doctrine. Piety rather than orthodoxy was their ideal. Their contention was as one-sided as the error they opposed; nevertheless their influence was singularly beneficial. They enabled Lutheranism to aim more directly at both truth and piety. Good instances of the systematic products of the time are found in Hollaz, Examen theologicum acroamaticum, 1707; Breithaupt, Institutiones theologica, 1695; and Buddeus, Institutiones theologicae dogmatica, 1723. But Pietism always lays too great an emotional strain upon human nature to be otherwise than transient, and hence it is with little surprise that we see, as the eighteenth century proceeds, a strong recurrence to the ecclesiastical standpoint. Bare acceptance and exposition of the standards again becomes the rule. Divines had not to reason their systems, but unfold them from certain unquestioned postulates. Ecclesiastical theology becomes once more dominant over Biblical theology. Then another antagonistic movement revivifies theological science. This time the antagonism comes from natural theology. The supernaturalists have to fight for very life with a most pronounced RATIONALISM. From the united influence of the great native philosophical movements of the time as well as of the imported Deism of England, a rationalistic theology, affecting every branch of theological science, and every doctrine of religious belief, raised its head and contended for the mastery with the more conservative Lutherans. The struggle was long and bitter. It could not but be protracted and envenomed, for looking back to those times to-day it is very manifest that truth was on both sides. The orthodox party justly insisted upon the supernatural source of much of religious knowledge, but unwisely failed to see that the natural reason is also a source of some religious knowledge; on the other hand, the rationalist party as justly insisted

upon the natural source of much of religious knowledge, but as unwisely failed to see that there are other sources of religious knowledge than reason. Good representatives of the orthodox Lutherans are seen in Döderlein, Institutiones theologi christiani, 1780 (6th edit. 1797), and in Morus, Epistolæ theologi christiani, 1789 (5th edit. 1821), and of the rationalistic Lutherans in Semler, Institutio ad doctrinam christianam liberaliter discendam, 1774, and in Bahrdt, System der moralischen Religion, 1787. So the struggle went on between the advocates of the light of nature rationally regarded and the light of Scripture ecclesiastically regarded. The Age of Transition, as the Germans are accustomed to call this time, merges into the Age of Regeneration with SCHLEIERMACHER (1768-1831). Certainly Schleiermacher gave a great impetus to all theological study. Recognising clearly that the one good thing in rationalism was its desire for personal conviction, for mental appropriation of truth instead of blind subjection to external authority, and at the same time recognising as clearly the truth of the leading contention of the orthodox party, that man could only rise to a higher life by means of a divine revelation, Schleiermacher presented all theological truth as a Glaubenslehre, or doctrine of faith; faith being at once just that internal conviction which the rationalist desires, and that appropriation of a divine revelation for which the supernaturalist contends. Undoubtedly Schleiermacher had here a fruitful principle, but a dangerous one as well. The subjective feeling of the Christian, the Christian consciousness, has a cogent argumentative force; but if this Christian consciousness be regarded as the supreme source of theological truth, the door is opened wide for many an erroneous presentation of supernatural knowledge. The personal convictions of the Christian are scarcely an adequate ground for the being and attributes of God, the person and work of Christ, and the course of the future; or, still more disastrously may it be said for such a system, these personal convictions can scarcely be regarded as valid beyond the consciousness of the person concerned. Seeing that the Christian consciousness varies, where lies the guarantee of catholic truth?

Nevertheless the *Christliche Glaube* of Schleiermacher was an epoch-making book, in spite of the manifest one-sidedness of its motto, adopted from Anselm, "Neque enim quero intelligere ut credam, sed credo ut intelligam." Naturally enough, moreover, the struggle of standpoints still continues in Germany.

The leading comparative works of the last fifty years may be suitably classed under four heads—the followers of Schleiermacher, the Hegelian Theologians, the Neo-Kantians (the Followers of Ritschl), and the adherents of the old Lutheran standpoint (the Confessional Theologians). The several schools show considerable diversities among themselves, and one school is more or less influenced by the others; but the several schools are nevertheless distinct.

The principal names in the School of Schleiermacher are Ullmann, known by his beautiful little work on Die Sündlosigkeit Jesu, 7th edit., Gotha 1863 (translated by Sophia Taylor as The Sinlessness of Jesus, an evidence for Christianity, 4th edit., T. & T. Clark, 1882); C. I. Nitzsch, System der christlichen Lehre, 6th edit. 1851 (translated by Robert Montgomery and John Hennen as System of Christian Doctrine, T. & T. Clark, 1849); Julius Müller, Die christliche Lehre von der Sünde, 6th edit., 2 vols., 1888, Bremen (translated by Wm. Urwick as The Christian Doctrine of Sin, 2 vols., T. & T. Clark, 1868); Rothe, Theologische Ethik, 2nd edit., 5 vols., Wittenberg 1869-1871, and Zur Dogmatik, edited by D. Schenkel, 2nd edit., 2 vols. in 3, Freiburg 1878; Martensen, Christian Dogmatics, a compendium of the doctrines of Christianity, translated by Wm. Urwick, T. & T. Clark, 1866; Isaac A. Dorner, System der christlichen Glaubenslehre, 2 vols., 1879-1881, Berlin, 2nd edit. 1886, 1887 (translated by Alfred Cave and J. S. Banks as A System of Christian Doctrine, 4 vols., T. & T. Clark, 1880-1882); J. P. Lange, Christliche Dogmatik, 3 vols., Heidelberg 1849-1852; and Van Oosterzee, Christian Dogmatics, a text-book for academical instruction and private study, translated from the Dutch by J. W. Watson and Maurice J. Evans, Hodder, 1874, 3rd edit. 1885. All of these have assimilated the best in Schleiermacher, whilst refusing to follow him slavishly. Of a more thoroughgoing subjective tendency is Schweizer, Die christliche Glaubenslehre nach protestantischen Grundsätzen dargestellt, 2nd edit., Leipsic 1877. Of a more rationalistic tendency are Karl Hase, Hutterus Redivivus oder Dogmatik der evangelisch-lutherischen Kirche, 12th edit., Leipsic 1883, and Gnosis oder protestantisch-evangelische Glaubenslehre für die Gebildeten in der Gemeinde, vol. vii. of his Collected Works, Leipsic 1893; and Otto Pfleiderer, Grundriss der christl. Glaubens- und Sittenlehre, 3rd edit., Berlin 1886; and Lipsius, Lehrbuch der evangelisch-protestantischen Dogmatik, 3rd edit., Brunswick 1893.

The principal Hegelian Theologians are Strauss, Der alte und der neue Glaube, 11th edit., Leipsic 1881 (translated by Mathilde Blind as The Old Faith and the New, a Confession, 2nd edit., Asher, 1873); and Biedermann, Christliche Dogmatik, 2 vols., 2nd edit. 1884, 1885; and (of an earlier date) Marheineke, Die Grundlehren der christl. Dogmatik als Wissenschaft, 2nd edit., Heidelberg 1827; and Daub, Die dogmatische Theologie jetziger Zeit, Heidelberg 1833; and Feuerbach, Das Wesen des Christenthums, Leipsic 1841 (translated by Marian Evans (George Elliot), Trübner, 1854, 2nd edit. in Trübner's

Philosophical Library, 1881).

The principal Neo-Kantian Theologians (called from their leader the RITSCHLIANER or RITSCHLIAN SCHOOL) are Ritschl, Die christliche Lehre von der Rechfertigung und Versöhnung, 4th edit., Bonn 1896, also Theologie und Metaphysik, Bonn 1887, also Unterricht in der christl. Religion, 4th edit., Bonn 1890; Kaftan, Das Wesen der christl. Religion dargestellt, 2nd edit., Bâle 1888, also Die Wahrheit der christl. Religion, Bâle, 1888 (translated by George Ferries as The Truth of the Christian Religion, 2 vols., T. & T. Clark, 1894); Herrmann, Die Metaphysik in der Theologie, Halle 1876, also Die Religion im Verhältniss zum Welterkennen und zur Sittlichkeit, eine Grundlegung der systematischen Theologie, Halle 1879, also Der Verkehr des Christen mit Gott im Anschluss an Luther dargestellt, 2nd edit., Stuttgart 1892 (translated by J. Sandys Stanton as The Communion of the Christian with God, a discussion in agreement with the view of Luther, see Theological Translation Library, § 15, 3); Max Reischle, Die Frage nach dem

Wesen der Religion, Grundlegung zu einer Methodologie der Religionsphilosophie, Freiburg 1889; F. A. B. Nitzsch, Lehrbuch der evangel. Dogmatik, see Sammlung theologischer Lehrbücher, § 15 (3.).

To the LUTHERAN CONFESSIONAL SCHOOL belong Thomasius, Christi Person und Werk, evangelisch-lutherische Dogmatik vom Mittelpunkte der Christologie aus, 3rd edit., by F. J. Winter, 2 vols., Erlangen 1887, 1888; Ebrard, Christliche Dogmatik, 2nd edit., 2 vols., Königsberg 1862, 1863; Luthardt, Kompendium der Dogmatik, 9th edit., Leipsic 1893; Kahnis, Die lutherische Dogmatik historisch-genetisch dargestellt, 2 vols., 2nd edit., Leipsic 1874; Frank, System der christl. Gewissheit, 2nd edit., 2 vols., Erlangen 1884, 1887 (1st vol. translated by M. J. Evans as System of the Christian Certainty, T. & T. Clark, 1886), and System der christl. Wahrheit, 1878-1881, 3rd edit. 1894; H. Schmid, Die Dogmatik der evangelischlutherischen Kirche dargestellt und aus den Quellen belegt, 7th edit., Gütersloh 1893 (translated by Chas. A. Hay and H. E. Jacobs as The Doctrinal Theology of the Evangelical Lutheran Church, Exhibited and Verified from the Original Sources, Philadelphia 1876); Philippi, Kirchliche Glaubenslehre, 6 vols. in 9, partly 3rd edit., Gütersloh 1870-1891; Böhl, Dogmatik, auf reformirt-kirchlicher Grundlage, Amsterdam 1887; Grimm, C. L. W., Institutio theologica dogmatica evangelica historico-critica, 2nd edit., Jena 1869; Sartorius, Die Lehre von der heiligen Liebe, Stuttgart 1861 (translated by Sophia Taylor as The Doctrine of Divine Love, or Outlines of the Moral Theology of the Evangelical Church, T. & T. Clark, 1884); Zöckler, see Handbuch der theologischen Wissenschaften, § 15 (3.), volume on Systematic Theology; and Kähler, Die Wissenschaft der christl. Lehre von dem evangelischen Grundartikel aus im Abrisse durgestellt, 2nd edit., Leipsic 1893.

In French-speaking Protestantism few works have been produced in comparative theology, as a whole, of first importance, although many notable books have appeared on sections of the whole subject. Two works of the first class should, however, be named, both characterised by orthodoxy of the Reformed type and equally by an interesting style and

clear method of presentation. These works are Benedict Pictet's *Theologia Christiana*, published at Geneva in French in 1701 and 1708 in 3 vols. 4to, and Grétillat's *Exposé de Théologie Systématique*, 3 vols., Paris 1885–1890.

No such magnificent evolution is to be seen in the doctrinal investigation of England, although some great names are to be found amongst the systematic divines of the United Kingdom, and although an evolution is clearly visible of a sufficiently instructive kind. The English Reformation had left behind two very distinct tendencies in English doctrine as well as in English life, the Anglican and the Calvinistic. Neither tendency was prolific in the production of systematic treatises, being more fruitful in ecclesiastical than intellectual results; each tendency, however, did become crystallised into some prominent doctrinal works. Anglicanism, a sort of via media between Romanism and Protestantism, with a tendency to elevate the tradition of the early Church above Scripture, is best seen in Hooker's famous Laws of Ecclesiastical Polity, 1594-1648, containing much of a doctrinal nature; whereas Calvinism is best seen in the works of Hooper, the first Puritan, as he is often called, who died a martyr in 1554, and of Thomas Cartwright, who died in 1602. During the seventeenth century these two antagonistic systems each benefited by the general systematising character of the time, and developed strongly, Calvinism being in the ascendant politically during the days of the Commonwealth, culminating in the Assembly of Divines at Westminister, and Anglicanism attaining to headship at the Revolution. Anglican scholarship is well seen in Thorndike, Epilogue to the Tragedy of the Church of England (1659), a work dealing with "the principles of Christian truth," "the covenant of grace," and "the laws of the Church"; and in Heylyn, Theologia Veterum. Amongst Anglicans of a less pronounced type may be mentioned with honour, Pearson, Exposition of the Creed, 1659; Ussher, A Body of Divinity, or the Sum and Substance of the Christian Religion, 1658; and Burnet, An Exposition of the Thirty-nine Articles of the Church of England, 1699. Of the Calvinists in the Established Church the more prominent were Archbishop Leighton, who wrote an exposition of the

Creed, and John Edwards, who wrote his Theologia Reformata, or the Body and Substance of the Christian Religion, 1713-1726. It was among the Nonconformist bodies, however, that the more distinctive Calvinistic teaching was to be found, as in the writings of Charnock, Flavell, and Bunyan, of Thomas Goodwin and John Owen; notice especially Thomas Watson's Body of Practical Divinity, 1692. A less extreme Calvinism was to be seen in the various works of Richard Baxter and of John Howe. Few works of a systematic kind are to be found in the eighteenth century. The great works of the Anglican and the Calvinist divines had then but few imitators. wide rationalistic movement, and the revival of natural theology which has been sketched in our history of natural theology (§ 17), palsied comparative study for a time, and very occasional writings testify that the love for doctrinal investigation was still alive in places. The "Lectures" of Philip Doddridge, the Nonconformist theological tutor, and those of John Hay, the Norrisian Professor of Divinity at Cambridge, bear witness to the non-extinction of the systematic spirit. Nevertheless the century is destitute of really great works, and even the splendid evangelical movement at its close failed to inspire any investigations into comparative theology, to be called either great or enthusiastic. Nor has the nineteenth century given birth as yet to any great doctrinal system. tions of confessions there have been, and many controversies on single doctrinal points, but the century has not yet found expression for its doctrinal beliefs in any great systematic works. Some few writers, notwithstanding, deserve respectful mention, such as Principal Hill, of St. Andrews, for his Lectures in Divinity, 1821; Principal Payne, of Western College, for his Lectures on Christian Theology, 2 vols., 1850; Principal Wardlaw, of Glasgow, for his Systematic Theology, 3 vols., 1856, 1857; Principal Pye Smith, of Homerton College, for his First Lines of Christian Theology, 2nd edit. 1860; and Principal Dewar, of Aberdeen, for his Elements of Systematic Divinity, 3 vols., 1867,—all of which skilfully expound Calvinistic doctrine; Richard Watson, for his Theological Institutes, or a View of the Evidences, Doctrines, Morals, and Institutions of Christianity, 4 vols., 1823, 5th edit. in

vols. ix.-xii, of Collected Works, 1836; and Dr. William Burt Pope, of Didsbury College, for his excellent Compendium of Christian Theology, 3 vols., 2nd edit. 1879, and A Higher Catechism of Theology, 1883, which as sympathetically expound Arminian doctrine; and Canon Norris, of Bristol, for a brief but pellucid little book entitled Rudiments of Theology, 1876. At this point, too, the following works deserve honourable mention, viz.: W. Lindsay Alexander, A System of Biblical Theology, 2 vols., T. & T. Clark, 1888, really a study in comparative theology; Edward Harold Browne, An Exposition of the Thirty-nine Articles, Historical and Doctrinal, 13th edit., Longmans, 1887; Harvey Goodwin, The Foundations of the Creed, 2nd edit., Murray, 1890; Thomas B. Strong, A Manual of Theology, Black, 1892; J. Agar Beet, Through Christ to God, a Study in Scientific Theology, Hodder, 1892, and The New Life in Christ, a Study in Personal Religion, Hodder, 1895; A. M. Fairbairn, The Place of Christ in Modern Theology, Hodder, 1893, 5th edit. 1896, "an endeavour through a Christian doctrine of God at a sketch of the first lines of a Christian Theology," by the Christian doctrine of God being meant the conception of God in the mind of Jesus; David Gracey, Sin and the Unfolding of Salvation, Passmore, 1894; James Denney, Studies in Theology, Hodder, 1895, 5th edit. 1896; and G. F. Maclear and W. W. Williams, An Introduction to the Articles of the Church of England, Macmillan, 1895. Amongst elementary manuals, all 12mo, the following may be mentioned: John Stock, A Handbook to Revealed Theology, Stock, 1862 (Baptist); E. A. Litton, Introduction to Dogmatic Theology, on the Basis of the Thirty-nine Articles of the Church of England, Stock, part 1, 1882, part 2, 1892; Benj. Field, The Student's Handbook of Christian Theology, 22nd thousand, Hodder, 1886 (Wesleyan); John S. Banks, A Manual of Christian Doctrine, Woolmer, 1887, 5th edit., Kelly, 1895 (Wesleyan); and J. Robinson Gregory, The Theological Student, a Handbook of Elementary Theology (Wesleyan), see Books for Bible Students, § 15 (3.).

However, the century has not yet adequately crystallised its religious thought into system. That there is a fresh movement in the realms of theology none can doubt who is

abreast of the currents of the time. Two causes of this tendency are conspicuous. This century has been the century of natural science and of travel. Verification and the brotherhood of man are the watchwords of the day. Great discoveries in the natural world have affected some old interpretations of Scripture on the one hand, thus introducing an element of uncertainty into popular religious conceptions; and on the other hand, another disintegrating element has appeared in the largely increased knowledge travellers have given of the non-Christian religious systems. Thus from two sides, from natural and from ethnic theology, new light has been thrown upon the nature and history of man. Now the weak points of those great Protestant theologies, which, as we have seen, served for more than two centuries as the highest expressions of the thoughts of religious men upon themselves and their relations to their divine author, were just their views upon man, especially their views upon the world of heathendom. The inevitable result has been that the investigations recently made in natural science and comparative religion have thrown some discredit upon the older theologies. Hitherto, in short, in this century—to adopt the terminology of this book—new data have arisen in the realms of natural and ethnic theology; these new data have suggested new inferences; and these new inferences have necessitated changes and adjustments in comparative theology. At the same time reconstruction has also been to a considerable extent demanded by the discoveries made during the century in Biblical and historical theology, branches which are almost the children of the century. The seed has been sown; the flax has been gathered and spun; it now remains to weave the yarn into fabric useful and strong. Hence the need of a new theology, a thing to be feared only by him who has identified the veritable thoughts of God with his thoughts upon the divine thoughts.

But before drawing up the prominent lessons of the history we have been considering, a few words should be given to the course of inquiry in America, where again a specific development of considerable interest has been going on for many years. At first the theology of America was the strictest Calvinism, and many representatives of this school remain

to-day. The more prominent representatives of this older and more pronounced Calvinistic standpoint are President Dwight, Theology Explained and Defended in a Series of Sermons, 5 vols., 1819, of which various editions have been published; Professor Breckinridge, The Knowledge of God Objectively and Subjectively Considered, 2 vols., 1858; Professor Finney, Lectures on Systematic Theology, 2 vols., 1851: Professor Chas. Hodge, Systematic Theology, 3 vols., 1872 (the finest work of its class); Professor Dabney, Syllabus and Notes of the Course of Systematic and Polemic Theology taught in Union Theological Seminary, Virginia, 2nd edit. 1878; and Professor H. B. Smith, System of Christian Theology, 2nd edit. 1884. But strong and independent minds appearing, who found this severity of system inconsistent, unsatisfactory, and paralysing, they commenced a series of modifications in the traditional system of doctrine designed to render it more rational, more palatable to the believer, and more easily defensible against the assailant. This modifying process has been going forward with a good degree of steadiness ever since the days of President Edwards (1703-1758), who unintentionally advanced principles which logically necessitated change of view. Those who desire to see the phases of this very interesting movement by which a moderate Calvinism has been skilfully and cogently developed would do well to refer to an excellent article on "New England Theology" in the tenth volume of M'Clintock and Strong's Cyclopædia. At the present time this modification of the older Calvinism has a very general prevalence in the Congregational Churches of the New England and Western States, and is favoured by many in other Calvinistic bodies. At the beginning of the century this school also influenced many in England. principal systematic work which has emanated from this school is Samuel Hopkins' System of Theology, 2 vols., 1793, 1811. To-day representatives of the extremer and more moderate Calvinism are to be found side by side, whilst there is some evidence that a new effort in doctrinal construction is desired by many in America as well as at home. In this direction point such books as Munger's Freedom of Faith, 1883: and Newman Smyth's Old Faiths in New Lights, 1882.

In the same direction point such recent noteworthy books as A. H. Strong, Systematic Theology, a Compendious and Commonplace Book designed for the use of Theological Students, Rochester, U.S.A., 1886, a very valuable Baptist book; James Petigru Boyce, Abstract of Systematic Theology, Baltimore 1887 (Baptist); John Steinfort Kedney, Christian Doctrine Harmonized and its Rationality Vindicated, 2 vols., Putnam, 1889 (Protestant Episcopal); Samuel Buel, A Treatise of Dogmatic Theology, 2 vols., New York 1890 (Protestant Episcopal); Emanuel V. Gerhart, Institutes of the Christian Religion, New York 1891 (Reformed Lutheran); W. G. T. Shedd, Dogmatic Theology, 3 vols., New York 1888–1894; and John Miley, Systematic Theology, 2 vols., New York 1892 and 1894.

Thus, from the story of the past, the task of the present is clear. In these days of international railways, international posts, international telegraphs, international commerce and literature, comparative theology is manifestly and consciously beginning an international development amongst the Protestant Churches. Nor can the task end with the Protestant Churches. Side by side with the historic Protestant Churches are the historic Romish and the historic Eastern Churches. Comparative theology is, or ought to be, and as it fulfils its end, must be, one and not many. Comparative theology must push its researches until there is but one Christian theology. For, asks Dr. Hitchcock, in his Eternal Atonement (p. 84), "What is Christianity?" and himself replies, "The question is put and pressed to-day as never before: and sectarian answers are behind the time: no creed of Orient or Occident, ancient or modern, has spoken the final word." Nay more, the revelations of God are supplementary, not contradictory. Comparative theology must therefore continue its intellectual labours until there is but one theology, universal and unassailable, reasoned and reasonable, infallible because true, eternal because the just rethinking by man of the thoughts of the Eternal.

But this theology, as universal as man, as reasoned as logic, as lasting as the soul, is as yet little more than a dream. Theologians themselves are only beginning to think of an international theology. Theological peace is not yet.

The unassailable stage can only be reached by ceaseless development. The age is moving. With growing unanimity theologians are combining to construct a system of religious truth, with scientific method, with scientific completeness, and with scientific freedom. In a critical spirit men are weighing the beliefs of the past. In an eclectic spirit they are assimilating from ancient formularies whatever truth they contain. In a constructive spirit men are correcting, adjusting, remodelling these earlier formulas so as to express modern conceptions in modern ways. Thus the age is fulfilling its destiny. For the theological task of this present age, as of all ages, is to acknowledge and enlarge the theological truth of the past, to aim as far as in it lies at the one comparative theology, at catholic conflict between truth and error, between completeness and onesidedness, until the wrong and the limited are shown in their true colour and just proportion. Still, as the books last named show, there does seem to be a growing appreciation of the need of an international and interconfessional theology. There have been and still are English and Scotch and Genevan and German and Gallican and Roman and Eastern and American theologies; there have been and there still continue Protestant - catholic, and Oriental - catholic, and Roman - catholic orthodoxies. Is not the pressing need of the time an orthodoxy which is truly catholic and really international? Is not the pressing need of the time, that is, a scientific rather than a confessional theology?

And towards this international truth progress is assuredly being made. In short, what Rome pretends to teach authoritatively, — catholic and infallible truth, — the combined theologians of Protestantism, nay, all religious thinkers are, whether consciously or unconsciously, endeavouring to discover and proclaim.

Thus, in this section we have been able to touch upon one only of the aspects of the history of systematic doctrinal study, namely, upon the general point of view in successive systems, or upon what might be well called the battle of the standpoints. To the student this is the more important aspect of any historical survey. Of course there are few

books indeed from which something cannot be learnt, and there are few systems of doctrine which do not contain much truth. Upon the long elaboration of individual doctrines nothing has been said, although many systematic works have been written upon individual doctrines. What has been done in the preceding pages has been to gather up the prominent characteristics of the leading epochs of the past with a view to pointing the way to the task of the future. This century needs to reformulate its faith as past ages have needed to reformulate their faiths. Only when new facts cease to be discovered will new systematisations become unnecessary. At the present time vast accumulations of new facts call for comparative study and systematic arrangement. New times call for new systems. Not that new systems are wholly new; a truer mode of expression would be a new development of the systems of the past. Two tasks of a comparative nature therefore lie before the age: first, to determine the sources of religious knowledge available, together with their relative value; and secondly, to build up the facts afforded by these sources in due relation and true proportion.

Be it remembered that a new system of theology is not a new Bible; it is a new and more exact interpretation of the one Bible; it is an interpretation of the Bible, in accordance with the scholarship of the time, reduced to accuracy, consistency, and order. Nor does a new system of theology part with the historic faith of the Churches, rather, whilst recognising a process of development, does it seek to put itself in its line. In some doctrines the Churches have reached definite and abiding conclusions. Concerning some doctrines, on the other hand, there is discord in the Churches, a discord which can only pass in the normal way by the clash of opinions and the survival of the fittest. There are other doctrines to which the Churches have given little attention, and respecting which there have been no official determinations in any creed. Hence the aim of the comparative theologian in any age must ever be to assimilate all that is trustworthy in past theologies at the very moment that he is identifying himself with the party of progress, and attempting to discover new truth or to put old truths in new light. As

Dr. J. W. Donaldson so well says in his Christian Orthodoxy, "true conservatism presumes a timely relinquishment of the untenable" (p. 8). The staple of any new system of theology must necessarily be truths long known reset. Theology is constructive; it is an edifice of truth—that is to say, built by human reason from the materials supplied by Christ and His apostles, by His prophets and their ethnic and philosophic forerunners. Just as nature is not physical science, natural science being constructive, the product of the exercise of the human intellect upon nature, so the science of religious doctrine, or comparative theology, is not the Bible, or any or all of the sources of religious truth, it is constructive, the product of the working of the human mind upon the several sources of religious truth. And the analogy of building construction may be carried further. In some ages the task of comparative theology is simply to raise the roof, so to speak, of the existing structure or the addition of a new wing: whereas in some ages the task of comparative theology is wholly to rebuild, utilising the old materials, it is true, but using new materials as well, thus erecting a fresh edifice according to a novel The latter is the present task. Still, let it never be forgotten, to carry on the figure, that most of the old materials have approved themselves wind and weather proof, and seasoned as they are, must reappear in any new building. It would be strange indeed if the accumulated and protracted labours of all the great theologians of the past had left behind no imperishable heirlooms. A new system of theology being nothing but an attempt to grasp the meaning of divine revelation in its entirety, whatever of truth the past has brought forth must be embodied under penalty of incompleteness.

Two tasks, then, lie before any new system of comparative theology. The first task is to determine the sources of religious truth and their relative value, to rigorously examine, that is to say, whether reason, or intuition, or the Christian consciousness, or Scripture, or the Churches, or some combination of these, constitutes the criterion of religious truth. The second task is by the aid of the principles thus established to construct a system of religious truth.

# § 77.

#### DIVISION AND BRIEF OUTLINE OF COMPARATIVE THEOLOGY.

Returning, after our historical survey, which has not been without its lessons, to the exposition of that highly important branch of religious science, comparative theology, we have now to ask what are its main sections. Comparative theology being the science which constructs a system of religious truth from the comparison of the religious truths given in nature, the extra-Christian religions, the Bible, and the history of the Christian Church, is this science simple, or is clearness served by subdividing the science further?

Various divisions have been adopted, for scientific precision and didactic convenience, in systematic or, as we prefer to say, comparative theology. Some have divided the science into dogmatic and apologetic theology; and some have divided the science into dogmatic, apologetic, polemic, and eirenic theology. We pass by other divisions, and direct attention to these two, in order to smooth the way for our own classification. Now, strictly speaking, apologetics, apologia reduced to science, defends religious doctrine against assault; polemics employs religious doctrine as a means of attack; and eirenics utilises religious doctrine as a harmoniser of varying schemes of thought. Apologetics presents truth on the defensive; polemics presents truth on the offensive; and eirenics presents truth as a peacemaker. But, after all, does the mode of the utilisation of truth suffice to divide truth into classes, or do we not rather base our classifications upon the varieties The same truth variously applied is still the same truth, and belongs to but one class. Many therefore have adopted the former of the two divisions, and have divided systematic theology into dogmatics and apologetics, meaning by the former the scientific examination of religious doctrine, and by the latter the scientific substantiation of religious doctrine. This is certainly to use the word apologetics in a somewhat enlarged sense as compared with the usage previously mentioned. Nevertheless there is much to be said for

this twofold division. The scientific presentation of religious truth is one thing, and the scientific verification of Christian truth is another. The usual division of systematic theology into dogmatic and apologetic theology appears highly reasonable.

The transition to the division advocated here is easy. Allowance being made for the enlarged view of systematic or comparative theology here expounded, the division preferred is substantially identical, in content if not in name, with the twofold division into dogmatics and apologetics. There are necessarily two great problems in comparative theology, or the science which compares the results of the theological sciences previously examined. On the one hand, laws of comparison have to be deduced. The religious truths supplied by nature and by heathenism, by the Bible and by the history of the Church, are by no means of equal value. Nature does not supply so clear a revelation of the religious relations of man as does the Bible, nor are the experiences of heathenism as important as the experiences of Christendom. The sources of religious truth are neither equally clear nor equally refreshing. Some springs of supernatural knowledge yield a limited, and some an inexhaustible supply. teaching of Socrates, precious though it be, cannot rival that of Augustine, whilst Augustine would most humbly retract any word of his which manifestly came into conflict with the declarations of Jesus. It is the prerogative of the words of Christ alone to slake the spiritual thirst for ever. measure of this relativity of truths from various sources it is indispensable to take. No sure step can be taken in comparative theology until this question of the variable value of religious truths has been carefully investigated. essential for comparative theology to formulate its principles of comparison. In other words, the first task of comparative theology is to estimate its criteria of truth. What classes of truths are higher and what lower, what are supreme sources and what sources are inferior, in what order the rational man shall respect the deliverances of the several sources religious truth open to him,-these are questions which must be solved at the very outset of comparative religious investigations. What is the criterion of religious truth, whether reason, or sentiment, or Scripture, or tradition, and what is the relative value of the several criteria, whether nature, or heathenism, or the Bible, or the Christian consciousness of the individual, or the convictions of the collective Church,—these are questions which demand attention before any advance can be made to the solution of the problem of comparative theology. This our historical survey has made evident. One branch of comparative theology, to which the name may be given of FUNDAMENTAL THEOLOGY with some appropriateness, deals then with the question as to the relative value of the several sources of religious knowledge. A structure of religious truth cannot be founded wisely without a sure foundation, and fundamental theology deals with the necessary foundation. The problem of fundamental theology is to inquire what sources of religious truth are reliable, and what is the relative value of these sources.

The foundation laid in fundamental theology,-and theological controversy almost invariably runs up to diversity of view upon the ultimate sources of religious truth,—the second task of comparative theology is to formulate and subordinate the several doctrines afforded by the several sources. Nature has its teaching concerning the being and attributes of God; similar knowledge concerning the Deity is given by the ethnic religions, which demonstrate at least both the strength and the weakness of the religious intuitions of man, together with the laws of their amelioration or decadence; the Bible has additional knowledge to impart concerning the Divine Being and His purposes concerning man; whilst the Christian consciousness of both the individual and the Church at large testifies somewhat to the nature and plans of the infinite Father; from all these various sources it is the task of comparative theology, having settled the validity and the relative value of these sources, to construct a doctrine of God. This one illustration may suffice. From what we have seen in the earlier pages of this book, inductions concerning God and spirits and the world and man and evil and salvation from evil and associations of the saved and the last things, are afforded by the several sources of doctrinal knowledge, and it

is the second problem of comparative theology, by the scientific comparison and concatenation of these inductions, to erect a system of religious truth. To this second branch of comparative theology the name may be given of constructive, dogmatic, or doctrinal theology, with a preference for the last, as more readily intelligible.

Further, there is a third branch of comparative theology. For long the moral doctrines of theology were regarded as a branch of the doctrines in general. But there is manifest advantage in treating ethical doctrine apart. Moral law is different from intellectual truth. Now, there is an ethical system, as we have seen, in natural theology, and in ethnic theology, and in Biblical theology, and in ecclesiastical theology. Consequently there must be an ethical system in comparative theology. It may be suitably called Ethical Theology, or Comparative Ethics.

Comparative Theology consists, then, of three branches, viz., Fundamental Theology, which investigates the validity and relative value of the sources of religious truth; Doctrinal Theology, which investigates the doctrinal inductions supplied by the several sources of religious truth, and forms these inductions into a system of doctrine duly discovered, verified, and affiliated; and Ethical Theology, which investigates the ethical inductions supplied by the several sources of religious truth, and forms these inductions into a system of ethics duly discovered, verified, and affiliated.

## SUBDIVISION I.: FUNDAMENTAL THEOLOGY.

§ 78.

NAME, DEFINITION, AND PROBLEM OF FUNDAMENTAL THEOLOGY.

Fundamental Theology, then, which we first consider, is that branch of comparative theology which deals with the validity and relative value of the several sources of religious knowledge,—nature, heathenism, the Bible, and the history of the Christian Church. The name is neither new nor inap-

propriate. For some time now some leading German writers have preferred the name fundamental to apologetic theology, as more accurately expressing to the modern mind the function of this branch of theological science, and the word is too good not to be naturalised in English. Besides, there is a peculiar appropriateness in our use of the word, which differs somewhat from the Continental usage. From the distinct recognition of different sources of religious knowledge of varying values, the need directly follows of estimating these values, such an estimation being the indispensable groundwork of further argument. In other words, comparative theology is a structure built of more materials than one, and it is of the supremest importance that the relative strength of these materials be understood; for however utilised they be in our foundation, they must be so disposed as to bear the greatest strain.

It is true that the problem, as well as the name and definition of fundamental theology, have been to some extent considered in the preceding section; but seeing the importance of clear views upon this branch of comparative theology, some few words may be advisably added. The necessity for a science of fundamental theology follows from the fact that all the great differences of theological belief ultimately resolve themselves into a lack of common ground from which to start. The point is worth illustrating. The chequered course of the history of religious doctrine shows with clearness that, whilst variations of views have been numerous even when there has been unanimity upon first principles, there has also been a wide divergence upon first principles themselves. Church has been divided from Church upon the very nature of what constitutes credible truth, as well as upon the details of the Christian system. The diverse criteria of the doctrines to be believed have perplexed the thoughtful as well as the diverse details of the Christian creed. Now, assuming that adequate data exist for coming to an irrefragable opinion both upon the rule and the doctrines of religious belief, and assuming that these data do not differ from all other scientific data in their capability of being reduced to a true and natural order, the great aim of comparative theology being to find unity in

diversity, agreement in difference, truth in opinion, solid ground in shifting beliefs, comparative theology must manifestly first criticise, classify, compare, and argue from all data bearing upon the credibility of its sources, and secondly, criticise, classify, compare, and argue from all data bearing upon the testimonies of these sources. The task is doubtless a long, perhaps with our present faculties a ceaseless one. But in this respect comparative theology is simply like every other branch of science, the prosecutors of which dare not count themselves to have apprehended, but rather desire to advance by steady persistence in well-doing along one continuous course of progress, "unresting, unhasting."

Track the great divisions of Christian thinkers to their first cause, and how frequently do they resolve themselves into lack of agreement upon the validity and relative value of the several sources of religious truth! What possible end is there to the diversities of view between Rationalists, Romanists, Protestants, Mystics, Deists, Agnostics, and the adherents of the various ethnic faiths, until the question has been thrashed out as to the validity and relative value as criteria of religious truth of the conclusions of the natural reason, the deliverances of councils, the revelations of Scripture, the intuitions of the inner light, the decisions of our present faculties, or the oral or written assertions of heathen religious leaders? How idle, for example, is it to endeavour to settle whether the Calvinistic or Papist view of the Lord's Supper be the more correct, until it has been first decided whether the decrees of bishops in council assembled are of equal weight with the records of apostles! Fundamental theology, recognising that different rules of faith have been maintained, that varying views have been held concerning the validity and relative value of the sources of religious truth, sets itself carefully and fully to examine these first principles of all doctrinal conclusions.

What sources are there of religious truth, and what relations of superiority or inferiority do these sources sustain to each other,—these are the problems which fundamental theology undertakes to solve. The task is as important as it is difficult.

# § 79.

#### DIVISION OF FUNDAMENTAL THEOLOGY.

Fundamental Theology dealing with the validity and the relative value of the sources of religious truth, the division of this branch of comparative theology follows from our previous examination of those sources. Fundamental theology is divided into five parts, viz.:—

- The validity of the inductions of natural theology (Natural or Philosophical Apologetics).
- 2. The validity of the inductions of ethnic theology (Ethnic Apologetics).
- 3. The validity of the inductions of Biblical theology (Biblical Apologetics).
- 4. The validity of the inductions of ecclesiastical theology (Ecclesiastical Apologetics).
- 5. The relative value of the inductions of natural, ethnic, Biblical, and ecclesiastical theology.

# § 80.

#### OUTLINE OF FUNDAMENTAL THEOLOGY.

Various forms of authority have been propounded as masters before whom man must do obeisance, such as infallible reason, an infallible Church, and an infallible book. Now, before one form of authority it is manifest man must bow; he cannot but acknowledge the authority of truth. Let truth be found, and liberty to believe or disbelieve no longer exists. Private judgment is either folly or madness when truth is presented to us. Truth is but another name for fact. Fact is authoritative, or tyrannous, as some prefer to say; and truth, which is but fact mirrored in the mind without distortion, is equally tyrannous or authoritative. The great questions, therefore, for fundamental theology, seeing that there are various sources from which it draws its data, are.—first, to what extent do the several sources concerned

afford truth? and secondly, what are the limits of the several sources? in other words, what are their regulative values, which is supreme and which is inferior?

Immediately the latter question is asked, an interesting relation discloses itself amongst the several sources of religious knowledge. Those sources are natural theology, which presents the deliverances and nothing but the deliverances of the natural reason of man; ethnic theology, which presents the deliverances and probably nothing but the deliverances of the natural reason of man; Biblical theology, which claims to present the deliverances of a long-continued revelation of God to man; and ecclesiastical theology, which claims to present, not wholly new truth, but truth deduced during many years from the Bible. Even the Romanist, who places ecclesiastical doctrines in the post of highest honour, yet maintains as strongly as the Protestant that the decisions of councils before which he bows are but developments of the statements of Scripture. It is thus manifest that the great question as to supremacy does not lie between the doctrines of nature and the doctrines of the Church, nor between the doctrines of heathen faiths and the doctrines of the Church, but always lies between one fixed member of an antithesis and a variable member. Decision lies between Scripture and the Church as the supreme arbiter, or between Scripture and nature, or between Scripture and the truths of ethnic theology. The authority of Scripture is the one contested point. It is manifest, therefore, that the advisable course to be pursued is, to begin by investigating the authority of Scripture. That settled, it will not be difficult to adjudicate upon the relative value of the other sources of religious knowledge. The first question which lies before us is,—the stupendous question as to the authority of Scripture.

This primary question may be more exactly stated. Natural theology deals with the ordinary universe and the common course of events. Ethnic theology does not often claim to deal with rarer facts than are presented by the ordinary experience of man. Biblical theology, on the contrary, proceeds on the basis of an infringement of the common order, and declares itself to be founded on the fact of an exceptional

revelation from God to man. The source of natural know-ledge of the supernatural is the common series of facts reflected in the human intellect; the source of ethnic know-ledge of the supernatural is apparently the common series of facts reflected in the intellect; but the source of Biblical knowledge of the supernatural is asserted by the Bible itself to be an extraordinary series of facts reflected in the experience and mind of man. Here, then, our question emerges again. The paramount question is, Whether the Bible is the record of a series of exceptional divine revelations of communications to man of what he could not have known from the ordinary channels of human knowledge.

The reply can only be given after a long and cumulative argument from the facts presented by the Bible.

Only the line of inquiry can be indicated here.

At the outset the credibility of the Bible when narrating ordinary history must be investigated. Here an interesting series of facts from ancient and modern sources aid us to a conclusive settlement of the bona fides of Scripture. Being, then, veracious in its presentation of ordinary facts, a presumption is established that its veracity is no less marked when it is dealing with uncommon occurrences. Proceeding, then, to these uncommon occurrences, the miracles of the Bible, and their necessarily supernatural origin, call for examination. Thence it is necessary to pass from miracles in general to such individual miracles as prophecy, with its exceptional phenomena; as Biblical doctrine, at once reiterating and transcending natural doctrine; as the life, teaching, and resurrection of Jesus, the crown of miracles; as the origin, tenets, and success of the early Church, so manifestly divine. All forms of evidence, objective and subjective, may be summoned to the decision of this question of the exceptionally revealed character of Scripture, but the decision once reached, fundamental theology has made its greatest stride towards its goal. The question it has primarily to consider is, be it remembered, not whether the Bible is inspired; the mode by which the veracity of Scripture is ensured is a secondary question. The great question is, Whether the Bible is revealed, whether its pages record, and record truthfully, a series of divine revelations made from the days of Adam to those of the Apostle John. If the Bible does veraciously narrate the course and contents of a series of revelations, of a series of divine communications to which it was impossible for the unaided human faculties to attain, the Bible must be the supreme source of truth. At least no other source can transcend the Bible, unless its contents can be reasonably shown to transcend the revelation of Scripture.

The revealed character of Scripture once demonstrated, the task of fundamental theology is considerably

simplified.

That the natural reason which supplies the data for natural theology is veracious, it will not be difficult to show, for if it be not veracious, the attainment of truth of any kind is impossible; again, that the natural reason is *natural*, places it in an inferior position as regards the Bible. Similar

remarks apply to ethnic theology.

The only remaining question is the great question between Romanism and Protestantism, i.e. Whether the collective Christian consciousness can be regarded as affording a series of higher revelations than the series of revelations contained in Scripture. The question is a question of fact. comparison do its work. Critical comparison of the deliverances of the Bible and the deliverances of the collective Christian consciousness will soon show that the views of Christians, however numerous, are not equivalent to the supreme Biblical revelation, the views of Christ. Should the individual Christian consciousness be a candidate for the honour of being the supreme arbiter of truth, comparison will again speedily enable us to declare that the individual consciousness owes more to the Bible than the Bible owes to the individual consciousness, and that the teacher in this case has not been outgrown by the pupil.

## \$ 81.

#### BOOKS RECOMMENDED ON FUNDAMENTAL THEOLOGY.

#### I. For Introductory Study.

Note.—In the absence of a good modern book which treats of the whole range of this important subject, the student is recommended to read a few select books from the following Books for more Advanced Study; and especially Christlieb, Modern Doubt and Christian Belief, and Bruce, Apologetics, or Christianity Defensively Stated, and Mair, Studies in the Christian Evidences.

#### II. For more Advanced Study.

## (1.) Of Fundamental Theology, or Apologetics.

Note 1.—As has been said before, the term Apologetics has been used with several connotations—in one usage it is just equivalent to what has been called Fundamental Theology; in another usage, when it is employed to mean all Christian Doctrine as critically or defensively stated, such doctrines as the Trinity, the Atonement, and Future Punishment being included. In this latter usage much has been treated under Apologetics which would be here treated under Doctrinal Theology; further, such a view of Apologetics would make it, in large part, posterior and not prior in study to Doctrinal Theology.

Note 2 .- Many of the books named and characterised generally in the History of the Study of Comparative Theology deal largely with the problems of

Fundamental Theology; compare § 76.

Addison, Joseph, Evidences of the Christian Religion, to which are added, Discourses against Atheism and Infidelity, with a preface, containing the sentiments of Mr. Boyle, Mr. Locke, and Sir Isaac Newton concerning the Gospel Revelation, 1820.

CHATEAUBRIAND, F. R. DE, Génie du Christianisme et Défense du Christianisme, many editions; the best, Paris 1828. [Romanist,

but very suggestive as well as eloquent.

WISEMAN, CARDINAL, Twelve Lectures on the Connection between Science and Revealed Religion, 1st edit. 12mo, 1847; several editions since. [Worth reading even to-day, although much of its science is now antiquated.

Rogers, Henry, The Eclipse of Faith, or a Visit to a Religious Sceptic, many editions; 1st 1852, Longmans. [A romance, with

much pungent apologetical matter interpolated.]

CHALMERS, THOS., Institutes of Theology, Edinburgh 1856. first vol. deals eloquently with the Christian evidences.]

Lichtenberger, Fréderic, Des Elements Constitutifs de la Science

Dogmatique, Strasburg 1860.

M'ILVAINE, C. P., The Evidences of Christianity of Natural and Revealed Religion, Cleveland (Ohio) 1872, 12mo. [Has been translated into German.

Ullmann, C., Die Sündlosigkeit Jesu, eine apologetische Betrachtung, 7th edit., Gotha 1863; translated under the title, The Sinlessness of Jesus, T. & T. Clark, 4th edit. 1882. [Confronts disbelievers in the supernatural with the sinlessness of Jesus.

Guizor, F. P. G., Méditations sur l'essence de la religion chrétienne, 1864: followed by Méditations sur l'état actuel de la religion

chrétienne.

Fisher, G. P., Essays on the Supernatural Origin of Christianity, with special reference to the Theories of Renan, Strauss, and the Tübingen School, New York 1866.

— Manual of Christian Evidence, 12mo, Dickinson, 1892.

Bushnell, Horace, Nature and the Supernatural, as together constituting one System of God, new edit., New York 1867; Dickinson, 12mo, 1880. [Inquires why Christianity cannot vanish as did the heathen faiths of Greece and Rome.]

Delitzsch, Franz, System der christlichen Apologetik, Leipsic 1869. Arranges all apologetics under, first, the correspondence between Christianity and the needs of man; and second, the historical reality and correspondence of Christianity and the Bible.

BAUMSTARK, C. E., Christliche Apologetik auf anthropologische

Grundlage, Frankfort, 3 vols., 1872-1889.

CHRISTLIEB, TH., Modern Doubt and Christian Belief, a Series of Apologetic Lectures addressed to Earnest Seekers after Truth, 1st edit. 1874, 5th edit. 1885. [Lectures on the Breach between Culture and Christianity, on Reason and Revelation, on Modern non-Biblical Conceptions of God, on the Theology of Scripture and the Church, on Miracles, on the various Attacks upon the Person of Christ and His Resurrection.

Row, C. A., Christian Evidences viewed in relation to Modern Thought, Bampton Lecture for 1877, 5th edit. 1888, Frederic Norgate. [Lectures on the miraculous, and on the evidential

value of the life and character of Christ.

Luthardt, C. E., Apologetische Vorträge über die Grundwahrheiten des Christenthums, 1875, 11th edit., Leipsic 1890; über die Heilswahrheiten des Christenthums, 6th edit. 1890; über die Moral des Christenthums, 4th edit. 1890; über die modernen Weltanschauungen 3rd edit. 1891. The first three have been translated under the titles, Apologetic Lectures—on the Fundamental Truths of Christianity, 7th edit.; on the Saring Truths of Christianity, 5th edit.; on the Moral Truths of Christianity, 4th edit. 1896, T. & T. Clark.

Ebrard, J. H. A., Apologetik, wissenschaftliche Rechtfertigung des Christenthums, 2nd edit., 3 vols., Leipsic 1878-80, translated by Wm. Stuart and John Macpherson as Apologetics, or the Scientific Vindication of Christianity, 3 vols., 1886-87, T. & T.

Clark.

Wright, G. F., The Logic of Christian Evidences, 12mo, Dickinson, 1881.

Redford, R. A., The Christian Plea against Modern Unbelief, a Handbook of Christian Evidence, Hodder, 1881; 2nd edit. 1886. [Part i. reviews the history of Unbelief; Part ii. treats of Theism: Part iii. of Revelation.

Cook, Joseph, Boston Monday Lectures, with Preludes on Current Events, various editions; a good edition is issued by Dickinson

in 3 vols.

Goder, F., Lectures in Defence of the Christian Faith, translated by W. H. Lyttelton, 1st edit. 1881, 2nd edit., T. & T. Clark. [Lectures on the Resurrection, the Hypothesis of Visions, the Miracles, Perfectness, and Divinity of Jesus Christ, the Supernatural, and the Immutability of the Apostolic Gospel.]

GRIFFITH, HENRY, Faith, the Life-root of Science, Philosophy, Ethics,

and Religion, Elliot Stock, 12mo, 1882.

Steude, C. G., Beiträge zur Apologetik, Gotha 1884.

STORRS, R. S., The Divine Origin of Christianity indicated by its Historical Effects, Hodder, 1885. [Shows eloquently the new conceptions of God, man, duty, and politics introduced by Christianity, and the influence of Christianity on the mental, moral, and social life of mankind.

TYMMS, T. VINCENT, The Mystery of God, a Consideration of some Intellectual Hindrances to Faith, Stock, 1886, 5th edit. 1895. Studies of Materialism, Pantheism, Theism, Revelation, Evil, the

Bible, the Person and Resurrection of Christ, and Faith.]

MAIR, ALEXANDER, Studies in the Christian Evidences, 2nd edit.,

T. & T. Clark, 1889, 3rd edit. 1894.

Weiss, A. M., Apologie des Christenthums, vom Standpunkte der Sitte und Cultur, 5 vols., Freiburg 1888-89. [Vol. 1, 2nd edit., treats of The Whole Man; vol. 2, 2nd edit., of Humanity and Humanism; vol. 3, 2nd edit., of Nature and the Supernatural; vol. 4, 2nd edit., of Social Questions and the Social Order; vol. 5, of Perfection: Romanist.

Martineau, James, A Study of Religion, its Sources and Contents, 2 vols., Oxford 1888. [A philosophical examination, first, of the limits of human intelligence, and secondly, of the arguments for

the Being of God as Cause and as Perfection.]

— The Seat of Authority in Religion, Longmans, 1890. [Also

a study in Fundamental Theology: Unitarian.]

Beet, Joseph Agar, The Credentials of the Gospel, a Statement of the Reason of the Christian Hope, 1889; see Fernley Lectures, § 15 (3.).

Mead, C. M., Supernatural Revelation, an Essay concerning the

Basis of the Christian Faith, Kegan Paul, 1890.

Hettinger, Franz, Natural Religion from the Apologie des Christenthums, edited by H. B. Bowden, Burns & Oates, 1890; see Theologische Bibliothek,  $\S$  15 (3.).

Schmitt, Gregor, Die Apologie der drei ersten Jahrhunderte in

histor, system, Darstellung, Mainz 1890. [Romanist.]

CARRIERE, MORITZ, Die sittliche Weltordnung, 2nd edit., Leipsic 1891. [Argues that a spiritual order underlies the material order.]

Harrison, Alex. J., Problems of Christianity and Scepticism, Lessons from Twenty Years' Experience in the Field of Christian Evidence, Longmans, 1891.

— The Church in relation to Sceptics, a Conversational Guide to

Evidential Work, Longmans, 1892.

--- The Ascent of Faith, or the Grounds of Certainty in Science

and Religion, Hodder, 1893.

Macgregor, James, The Apology of the Christian Religion, historically regarded with reference to Supernatural Revelation and Redemption, T. & T. Clark, 1891.

— The Revelation and the Record, Essays on Matters of Previous Question in the Proof of Christianity, T. & T. Clark, 1893.

— Studies in the History of Christian Apologetics, New Testament and Post-Apostolic, T. & T. Clark, 1894.

STEARNS, LEWIS FRENCH, The Evidence of Christian Experience,

New York 1891.

Briggs, C. A., The Bible, the Church, and the Reason, the three Great Fountains of Authority, T. & T. Clark, 1892.

Bruce, A. B., Apologetics, or Christianity Defensively stated, 1st

edit. 1893, 3rd edit. 1896.

ORR, JAMES, The Christian View of God and the World as centreing

in the Incarnation, Edinburgh 1893, 2nd edit. 1895.

Mackintosh, Wm., The Natural History of the Christian Religion, being a Study of the Doctrine of Jesus as developed from Judaism and converted into Dogma, Glasgow 1894.

Schanz, P., Apologie des Christenthums, Freiburg 1895. [Part i., 2nd edit., treats of God and Nature; part ii, of God and Revela-

tion; part iii. of Christ and the Church: Romanist.]

Stöckl, Albert, Lehrbuch der Apologetik, Mainz 1895. [Part i. treats of Religion in itself and outside the sphere of Supernatural Revelation; part ii. of Revealed Religion: Romanist.]

- (2.) Of the Validity of the Inductions of Natural Theology. Note.—Compare the works named in § 20 (3.).
  - (3.) Of the Validity of the Inductions of Ethnic Theology. Compare the works named in § 26.
- (4.) Of the Validity of the Inductions of Biblical Theology.
  - (a.) Generally (including the Doctrine of Inspiration).

Lamothe, Charles, G., Inspiration of the New Testament Asserted and Explained, 1694. Hampden, R. D., An Essay on the Philosophical Evidence of Christianity, or the Credibility obtained to a Scriptural Revelation

from its Coincidence with the Facts of Nature, 1827.

Henderson, E., Divine Inspiration, or the Supernatural Influence exerted in the Communication of Divine Truth, and its special bearing on the Composition of the Sacred Scriptures, 2nd edit. 1847; see Congregational Lectures, § 15 (3.).

LEE, WM., The Inspiration of Holy Scripture, its Nature and Proof, 1st edit. 1854, 5th edit. 1882. [Contends, with much illustration and learning, for an inexpressible union of divine and human in Scripture parallel to the union of the divine and human in the person of Christ.

Macnaught, J., The Doctrine of Inspiration, being an Inquiry concerning the Infallibility, Inspiration, and Authority of Holy Writ,

Longmans, 1856, 12mo.

Auberlen, C. A., Die göttliche Offenbarung, ein apologetische Versuch, 2 vols., Basle 1861-1864, translated by A. B. Paton under the title, The Divine Revelation, an Essay in Defence of the

Faith, T. & T. Clark, 1867.

Gaussen, F. S. R. L., Théopmeustie, 1st edit. 1840, 4th edit. 1861, Geneva, translated by David Dundas Scott as Theopneustia, The Bible, its Divine Origin and Entire Inspiration, deduced from internal Evidence and the Testimonies of Nature, History, and Science, 12mo, Edinburgh 1861; new edit., Passmore, 1896.

Hannah, J., The Relation between the Divine and Human Elements in Holy Scripture, and Milman, H. H., The Character and Conduct of the Apostles considered as an Evidence of Christianity;

see Bampton Lectures, § 15 (3.).

BIRKS, T. R., The Bible and Modern Thought, new edition with an

Appendix, Religious Tract Society, 1862.

Warington, G., The Inspiration of Scripture, its Limits and Effects,

12mo, Skeffington, 1867.

Arnold, Matthew, Literature and Dogma, an Essay towards a Better Apprehension of the Bible, 1st edit. 1873, a popular edition in 12mo, 1883; also God and the Bible, a Sequel to Literature and Dogma, popular edition, 1884, Smith, Elder. [Occupies a purely naturalistic standpoint.

Rogers, Henry, The Superhuman Origin of the Bible inferred from

Itself: see Congregational Union Lecture, § 15 (3.).

Elliott, Chas., A Treatise on the Inspiration of the Holy Scriptures, T. & T. Clark, 1877. [Part i., Introductory Questions; Part ii., Proofs of the Inspiration of the Bible; Part iii., Definitions, Theories, Distinctions, Nature and Extent of Inspiration.]

Atwell, W. E., The Pauline Theory of the Inspiration of the Holy

Scriptures, 12mo, Hodder, 1878.

Goulburn, E. M., On the Inspiration and the Study of Holy Scrip-

ture, 12mo, 10th edit. 1878, Rivington.

GIVEN, J. J., The Truth of Scripture in connection with Revelation, Inspiration, and the Canon, T. & T. Clark, 1881.

Bruce, A. B., The Chief End of Revelation, Hodder, 1881. [A good reply to Matthew Arnold.]

Robson, John, The Bible, its Revelation, Inspiration, and Evidence,

Hodder, 1883.

Greg, W. R., The Creed of Christendom, its Foundations contrasted with its Superstructure, 8th edit., with an introduction, 2 vols., Trübner, 1883. [An anti-miraculous examination of the claims and contents of Mosaism and Christianity as given in the Scriptures.]

Ladd, G. T., The Doctrine of Sacred Scripture, a Critical, Historical, and Dogmatic Inquiry into the Origin and Nature of the Old

and New Testaments, 2 vols., T. & T. Clark, 1883.

— What is the Bible? an Inquiry into the Origin and Nature of the Old and New Testaments in the Light of Modern Biblical Study, New York 1888.

Olssen, Wm. W., Revelation, Universal and Special, 12mo, New

York 1885.

Cummings, E. C., Nature in Scripture, a Study of Bible Verification in the range of Common Experience, 12mo, Portland, U.S.A., 1885.

Schmid, Francis, De Inspirationis Bibliorum Vi et Ratione, Brescia 1885. [Romanist.]

SIMON, D. W., The Bible an Outgrowth of Theocratic Life, 12mo, T. & T. Clark, 1886.

Kennedy, John, The Self-Rerelation of Jesus Christ, with an examination of some Naturalistic Hypotheses, Isbister, 1889.

Manly, Basil, The Bible Doctrine of Inspiration explained and vindicated, 12mo, New York 1888.

Cave, Alfred, The Inspiration of the Old Testament Inductively Considered; see Congregational Union Lectures, § 15 (3.).

Underhill, E. B., The Divine Legation of Paul the Apostle, an Essan, Hodder, 1889.

Rohnert, W., Die Inspiration der heiligen Schrift und ihre Bestreiter, eine biblisch-dogmengeschichtliche Studie, Leipsig 1889.

[Romanist.]

Thomson, W. D., Revelation and the Bible, a Popular Exposition

for the Times, 12mo, Edinburgh 1890.

Dale, R. W., The Living Christ and the Four Gospels, Hodder, 1890, 7th thousand, 1894.

Griffiths, Wm., Divine Footprints in the Bible, Plain Tokens of God's Approach to Man in the Pathway of Revelation, Stock 1891.

Sanday, W., The Oracles of God, Nine Lectures on the Nature and Extent of Biblical Inspiration and on the Special Significance of the Old Testament Scriptures at the Present Time, Hodder, 1891.

--- Inspiration, see Bampton Lectures, § 15 (3.).

Ellicott, C. J., Christus Comprobator, or the Testimony of Christ to the Old Testament, 12mo, S.P.C.K., 1891, 5th edit. 1893. GLADSTONE, W. E., The Impregnable Rock of Holy Scripture, revised edition, Isbister, 1892.

CLIFFORD, JOHN, The Inspiration and Authority of the Bible, 10th

thousand, 1895, Clarke.

SMYTH, J. PATERSON, How God inspired the Bible, Thoughts for the Present Disquiet, 12mo, Bagster, 1892.

Knowling, R. J., The Witness of the Epistles, Longmans, 1892.

Berry, T. Sterling, Holy Scripture, Human, Progressive, Divine, 12mo, S.P.C.K., 1893.

DE WITT, JOHN, What is Inspiration? a Fresh Study of the Question, with New and Discriminative Replies, New York 1893.

Body, C. W. E., The Permanent Value of the Book of Genesis as an Integral Part of the Christian Revelation, Longmans, 1894.

M'Caig, A., The Grand Old Book, being Lectures on Inspiration

and the Higher Criticism, Stock, 1894.

URQUHART, JOHN, The Inspiration and Accuracy of the Holy Scriptures, Marshall, 1895.

# (b.) Of the Historical Accuracy of the Bible.

#### Compare § 53.

Hengstenberg, E. W., Egypt and the Books of Moses, or the Books of Moses illustrated by the Monuments of Egypt, translated from the German by R. D. C. Robbins, with additional notes by W. Cooke Taylor, T. & T. Clark, 1845.

PRIAULX, O. DE B., Questiones Mosaica, or the First Part of the Book of Genesis compared with the Remains of Ancient Religions,

2nd edit., Chapman, 1854.

RAWLINSON, GEO., The Historical Evidences of the Truth of the Scripture Records, stated anew, with special reference to the Doubts and Discoveries of Modern Times, Bampton Lecture for 1859, see § 15 (3.).

- Egypt and Babylon, from Scripture and Profane Sources,

Hodder, 1885.

Ebers, G., Egypten und die Bücher Mose's, sachlicher Commentar zu den ægyptischen Stellen in Genesis und Exodus, vol. i. (all published), Leipsic 1868.

M'Causland, D., Adam and the Adamite, or the Harmony of Scrip-

ture and Ethnology, 2nd edit., 12mo, Bentley, 1868.

— The Builders of Babel, Bentley, 12mo, 1874. [Substantiates

the confusion of tongues from pre-historic archæology.]

Gainet, Abbé, La Bible sans la Bible, ou histoire de l'ancien et du nouveau testament par les seuls témoignages profanes, 2 vols., 2nd edit., Bar-le-Duc 1871. [Romanist: a mine of materials for showing the historical character of Scripture.]

- Accord de la Bible et de la Géologie dans la Création de six jours, dans le récit du déluge mosaïque, et dans l'époque de l'appari-

tion de l'homme, Paris 1876.

Scrader, E., Die Keilinscriften und das Alte Testament, 1st edit. 1872, 2nd edit. 1883, Giessen; translated with additions by O. C. Whitehouse as The Cuneiform Inscriptions and the Old Testament; see Theological Translation Fund Library, § 15 (3.). [Follows the order of Scripture, and gives under each verse any elucidation from the cuneiform inscriptions.]

RITCHIE, A. T., The Creation, the Earth's Formation on Dynamical Principles in accordance with the Mosaic Record and the latest

Scientific Discoveries, 5th edit., Isbister, 1874.

Reusen, F. H., Bibel und Natur, 4th edit., Bonn, 1876, translated by Kathleen Lyttelton as Nature and the Bible, Lectures on the Mosaic History of Creation in its relation to Natural Science,

2 vols., T. & T. Clark, 1886.

Vigouroux, F., La Bible et les Découvertes Modernes en Palestine, on Egypte et en Assyrie, avec des plans, des cartes, et des illustrations d'après les monuments, Paris, 4 vols., 1877, 5th edit. 1889. [Uses the recent discoveries in Biblical archæology to purpose: Romanist.]

Grant, P. W., The Bible Record of Creation True for Every Age,

Hodder, 1877.

Lewis, Tayler, The Six Days of Creation, or the Scriptural Cosmology with the ancient Idea of Time-worlds in distinction from

Worlds in Space, new edit., T. & T. Clark, 1879.

Lenormant, F., Les Origines de l'Histoire d'après la Bible et les traditions des Peuples Orientaux: vol. i. From the Creation to the Deluge, Paris 1880; vol. ii. The New Humanity and the Dispersion, 1882; vol. ii., 2nd part, 1884. The first volume has been translated by Francis Brown as The Beginning of History, New York 1882. [An important comparison of Scripture with extant tradition.]

KINNS, SAMUEL, Moses and Geology, or the Harmony of the Bible with Science, with 110 illustrations, 1st edit. 1881, 10th edit.

1888, Cassells.

— Graven in the Rock, or the Historical Accuracy of the Bible confirmed by reference to the Assyrian and Egyptian Monuments in the British Museum and elsewhere, Cassells, 1891; 4th thousand, 1892.

ROUGEMONT, A. DE, Essai d'un Commentaire Scientifique de la Genèse, Paris 1883. [Treats of the unity of matter, unity of force, unity of life, transformation, periods of creation, unity of man, sanctification, fall and redemption, all as taught in Genesis and by science.]

Guyor, Arnold, Creation, or the Biblical Cosmogony in the Light of

Modern Science, T. & T. Clark, 1883.

Howerth, H. H., The Mammoth and the Flood, an attempt to confront the Theory of Uniformity with the Facts of recent Geology, Sampson Low, 1887.

— The Glacial Nightmare and the Flood, a second appeal to

common-sense from the extravagance of some recent Geology,

2 vols., Sampson Low, 1893.

GIRARD, RAYMOND DE, Le Deluge devant la critique historique, Freiburg, 2 vols., 1892-93. [The first part deals with the Historical school, the second with the Natural character of the Deluge.]

— La Théorie Sismique du Déluge, Freiburg 1895.

Schwartz, Franz von, Sintfluth und Völkerwanderungen, Stutt-

gart 1894.

- Boscawen, W. St. Chad, The Bible and the Monuments, Primitive Hebrew Records in the Light of Modern Research, Spottiswoode, 1895.
- Prestwich, Joseph, On Certain Phenomena belonging to the close of the Last Geological Period and on their bearing upon the Tradition of a Flood, Macmillan, 1895.

The Four Gospels as Historical Records, Norgate, 1895. [Argues

they are unhistorical.

- Dawson, Sir J. Wm., Eden Lost and Won, Studies of the Early History and Final Destiny of Man as taught in Nature and Revelation, Hodder, 1895.
- CONDER, C. R., The Bible and the East, Blackwood, 1896. [Shows, section by section, parallels between history as given in Bible and in monuments.

# (c.) Of the Miracles of the Bible.

Campbell, Geo., A Dissertation on Miracles, containing an Examination of the Principles advanced by David Hume in an Essay on Miracles, with a correspondence on the subject, Tegg, 1824.

Malan, C. Fils, Les Miracles sont-ils réellement des jaits surnaturels?

Fragment d'Apologétique, 12mo, Paris 1863.

TRENCH, R. C., Notes on the Miracles of our Lord, 1st edit. 1858; 8th edit. 1870. [In a preliminary essay the general questions concerning miracles are considered.]

Mozley, J. B., Eight Lectures on Miracles preached before the University of Oxford in the year 1865 on the Foundation of the

late Rev. John Bampton, 3rd edit., Rivingtons, 1872.

NEWMAN, J. H., Two Essays on Scripture Miracles and on Ecclesiastical, 2nd edit., Pickering, 1870. [The first essay deals with

the Scripture miracles.]

Supernatural Religion, an Inquiry into the Reality of Divine Revelation, 3 vols., complete edition (7th), Longmans, 1879. [Part i. endeavours to show the impossibility of a supernatural revelation by an examination of the question of miracles.]

Bruce, A. B., The Miraculous Element in the Gospels, Hodder, 1886.

Lias, J. J., Are Miracles Credible? 2nd edit., Hodder, 1890.

Müller, Eugen, Natur und Wunder, ihr Gegensatz und ihre Harmonie, ein apologetischer Versuch, Strasburg 1892. [Romanist.]

THOMSON, W. D., The Christian Miracles and the Conclusions of Science; see Handbooks for Bible Classes, § 15 (3.).

# (d.) Of the Prophecy of the Bible.

Compare § 65 (3.).

Sherlock, Thomas, Discourses on the Use and Intent of Prophecy, 1755.

Hurd, Bishop, Introduction to the Study of the Propheries, 1776.

RICHARDS, GEORGE, The Dirine Origin of Prophecy Illustrated and Defended; see Bampton Lectures, § 15 (3.).

Faber, G. S., The Sacred Calendar of Prophecy, 3 vols., 1828.

Keith, Alexander, Evidences of the Truth of the Christian Religion, derived from the literal julilment of Prophecy, Edinburgh: more

than forty editions have been published.

Smith, George, The Book of Prophecy, comprising a proof of the plenary Inspiration of Holy Scripture, a classified arrangement of Prophecies already fulfilled or in course of julfilment, and Prophecy as the testimony of Jesus, considered in its relation to the faith of the Church and the progress of Scepticism, Longmans, 1865.

Saville, B. W., Fulfilled Prophery in Proof of the Truth of Scrip-

ture, Longmans, 1882.

## (5.) Of the Validity of the Inductions of Ecclesiastical Theology.

NEWMAN, J. H., Two Essays on Miracles. [The second essay treats

of ecclesiastical miracles.

Doellinger, J. I. F. von, Prophecies and the Prophetic Spirit in the Christian Era, an Historical Essay, translated with Introduction, Notes, and Appendices by Alfred Plummer, Rivingtons, 1873.

Hettinger, Fr., Der Beweis des Christenthums, 5th edit., Freiburg

1875, 2 vols. in 5 parts. [Romanist.]

— Lehrbuch der Fundamental-Theologie oder Apologetik, 2 parts, Freiburg 1879. [Part i. treats of the proof of the Christian, and part ii. of the Roman Catholic religion.]

Littledale, R. F., The Petrine Claims, a Critical Inquiry, 12mo,

S.P.C.K. 1889.

Abbott, Edwin A., Philomythus, an Antidote against Credulity, a Discussion of Cardinal Newman's Essay on Ecclesiastical Miracles, 2nd edit., Macmillan, 1891.

STANTON, VINCENT HENRY, The Place of Authority in Matters of

Religious Belief, Longmans, 1891.

## (6.) Of the Relative Value of the Inductions of Natural, Ethnic, Biblical, and Ecclesiastical Theology.

Laouénan, Fr., Du Brahmanisme et de ses Rapports avec le Judaisme et le Christianisme, Pondicherry, vol. i. 1884. Kellogg, S. H., The Light of Asia and the Light of the World, a comparison of the Legend, the Doctrine, and the Ethics of the Buddha with the Story, the Doctrine, and the Ethics of Christ, Macmillan 1885.

Scott, Archibald, Buddhism and Christianity, a Parallel and a Contrast, Edinburgh 1890, Croall Lecture; see § 15 (3.).
Berry, T. S., Christianity and Buddhism, 12mo, 1891, S.P.C.K.
Robson, John, Hinduism and its Relations to Christianity, new edit., Edinburgh 1893.

## SUBDIVISION II.: DOCTRINAL THEOLOGY.

§ 82.

NAME, DEFINITION, AND PROBLEM OF DOCTRINAL THEOLOGY.

The foundations of comparative theology having then been carefully laid by fundamental theology, doctrinal theology may advance securely to the superstructure, the erection of a system of theological truth. By careful comparison of the results afforded by the several sources of religious truth. and comparison in obedience to the principles of fundamental theology, all that is possible for man to know concerning his supernatural relations may be gradually formulated. In fact, doctrinal theology is an accurate and concatenated statement of all those truths concerning God and man, and their relations, which are logically inferrible from the various sources of religious knowledge. Other names have been suggested for this branch of theology. Thus by a slight variation some have preferred to speak of dogmatics or dogmatic theology, doctrine and dogma being regarded as identical terms. Some again have selected the name constructive theology, not without appropriateness, seeing that this division of comparative theology would rear a lasting edifice from the various materials supplied by the sources of religious knowledge. Because of the positive character of the science, others again have adopted the name thetic theology. And because of the systematised form the science necessarily adopts, many have used the most frequent name of all, systematic theology. All these names are good; but a slight preference seems to attach to the term doctrinal theology, because it carries its meaning on its face.

The PROBLEM, therefore, of doctrinal theology is twofold, on the one hand, to both collect the data available upon any doctrine and comprehend these data under a suitable formula, and, on the other hand, to place this formula in its proper relations with other formulas. In other words, one aim is inductive, and the other systematic. In practice it will be found that these two aims are really one aim from different sides. Truth is so interrelated with truth, that, as in art so in science, truth is seldom reached without attention to the general result. It is the crude thinker, as it is the juvenile artist, who ignores the effect of collocation. Let a Luther grasp more firmly the doctrine of justification, and large readjustments show themselves unavoidable in his doctrine of God, his doctrine of man, his doctrine of salvation, and his doctrine of the Church. Nor is this a solitary instance. The more the currents of religious thought are watched, the more certain does it appear that no doctrine can be perfectly studied alone. Every doctrine has relations with every other doctrine. Our system of truth has its influence upon our more restricted investigations. Indeed there is peculiar ground for anxiety lest the vice of the specialist intrude into the study of theology. Hence the point insisted on is important, namely, that the correct formulation of any single doctrine will only follow the due recognition of two varieties of data, that is to say, the data for the special doctrine under consideration, and the data for all other doctrines. In every readjustment of doctrine which brings us nearer perfect truth, much is due to a completer study of system as well as to a completer study of isolated facts. For example, was it not an error of system which led Schleiermacher astray, the undue prominence given by him to the Christian consciousness incapacitating him, except at a sacrifice of logic, for giving suitable acknowledgment to many important points of religious truth? Similarly, was it not an error of system when Calvin gave so great a preponderance to the divine glory as to dim his perception of the wide reach of the doctrine of human freedom? To attain an adequate generalisation in doctrinal theology, -in a word, to reach true doctrine, -it is not only necessary to frame by mental effort a doctrine which adequately expresses all the data relative to the one doctrine in hand, it is also needful to frame a doctrine which harmonises with all other doctrines. The divine revelation to man must be harmonious, and it is a sin against this unity of truth if we do not keep such unity ever in mind. To reach a valid doctrine of the atonement for sin, we must study the data for the nature of God and the nature and consequences of the sin of man as well as the data for the work of Christ; in other words, we must investigate the work of Christ in ceaseless connection with the system of religious truth. What it is necessary to say by way of qualifying this general truth will appear in the next section.

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#### DIVISION AND BRIEF OUTLINE OF DOCTRINAL THEOLOGY

System then being by no means unimportant, it is interesting to notice that the only question as to the division of doctrinal theology is a question of system. As to the leading divisions themselves, there has seldom been a question amongst those who have regarded the science as a vera scientia. The doctrines of God, spirits, the world, man, sin, salvation, the church, and the last things have been commonly acknowledged to be the summa genera of doctrinal theology, although some writers have preferred one technical term for the constituent doctrines and one another, and although some have elected to treat of two or more of these doctrines under a single head. The unsolved problem is a problem of system. The question upon which agreement has to be reached is a question as to the principle of division to be acknowledged. Now, as was said at the close of the last section, it is the express recognition of a principium divisionis, and the arrangement of the series of doctrines accordingly, which enables us to pass from a haphazard and non-ordered treatment to a treatment which is at once systematic and helpful.

Let it be noticed, accordingly, that any one of these leading divisions themselves may become the principle by which

the others may be subordinated, and, as a matter of fact, history shows that most, if not all, the above divisions have been made the key to a systematic arrangement. Thus Calvin and many others, Martensen most recently, made the doctrine of the Trinity the principle of division; following the arrangement of the so-called Apostles' Creed, they regarded all the other doctrines as subsidiary to the doctrine of God, and treated of the world and man and sin under the doctrine of the Father, of the person and work of Christ under the doctrine of the Son, and of the remaining doctrines under the doctrine of the Holy Spirit. Others, like Lange and Thomasius in Germany, and Dr. Patton and Professor H. B. Smith in America, have made their system Christocentric as they say, regarding the doctrines of God, angels, the world, man, and sin as preparatory to Christ (as ideal Christology, as Lange says), regarding the doctrine of Christ itself (real Christology in Lange's phrase) as the fulfilment of the preparation, and regarding the entire history of man from Pentecost to the new heavens and earth as the manifestation of the glorified Christ (or universal Christology, to adopt again Lange's term). Schleiermacher and his school have constituted the doctrine of salvation their principle of division; Oosterzee has made the doctrine of the Church his; Schöberlein has made his treatment turn about the idea of the divine love; Coccejus and his school have made the entire system revolve about the subordinate idea of the covenants. A. M. Fairbairn finds his determinative principle in God as interpreted by the consciousness of Jesus. Similarly, just as some have based their doctrinal scheme upon the doctrine of man, it would be possible to view the entire range of doctrine as illustrative of the ministry of angels, of the life-history of the created universe, or even of the preliminaries to the day of judgment.

For several reasons, such a mode of division, by subordination to some individual doctrine, seems undesirable. For, first, in all such cases the principle of division is subjective, being based on some initial conviction as to the preponderating importance of some single doctrine. Secondly, every advance in physical science having been made by rigidly eschewing

the bias of subjective principles of any kind, similar exclusion may probably be of advantage in theological science. Thirdly, history shows that whenever subjective principles have been allowed to rule, a more or less unconscious twist has been given to the subordinated parts of the system. For example, to fix the eye too engrossedly upon the attributes of God has tended to the depreciation of the attributes of man; to contemplate with too rapt a devotion the redeemed state has tended to the minimising of the exceeding sinfulness of sin; to rivet the gaze too fixedly upon the stupendous divine love has tended to weaken the sight when directed upon the divine justice; to direct too concentrated an attention upon the consciousness of Jesus has been to depreciate other revelations of God. All these reasons suggest that the scientific principle of division should be objective, based, that is to say, upon the actual relations existing in the objects studied, not upon any self-originated opinion of ours as to the relations existing in the objects.

Now, again and again it has been seen during the course of this book, that all scientific study, whether in mass or in detail, should be governed by a single principle, -advance from the simpler to the more complex,—advance that is, according to the true order of study. So far from all knowledge being co-ordinate, it is divisible into a variety of grades, advancing from the least intricate to the most involved. You cannot multiply till you have learnt to add, and you cannot understand chemical formulæ until you have mastered arithmetic. A similar subordination runs throughout nature, and the more complex sciences demand for their prosecution a preliminary acquaintance with the more simple sciences. Now, is gradation of any kind visible in the range of doctrines? Can some doctrines be studied apart from others? Is it only possible to approach some doctrines after a preliminary acquaintance with others? That there is some such subordination seems to be implied in the fact of the practical unanimity of all Christendom upon the doctrine of God, and the very great diversity upon the doctrine of the last things. Again, a doctrine of the work of Christ manifestly depends upon the doctrines of sin and of the person of Christ, just as

these in turn rest upon the doctrine of God. There is a true order of study in doctrine, both suggestive and probative, an order well expressed by Principal Campbell in his well-known Lectures upon Systematic Theology, as follows: "There are indeed few arts or sciences which may not be digested into different methods, and each method may have advantages peculiar to itself; yet in general it may be affirmed that that arrangement will answer best upon the whole wherein the order of nature is most strictly adhered to, and wherein nothing is taught previously which presupposes the knowledge of what is to be explained afterwards."1 The true order of study is to advance from the simpler doctrine to the more complex, meaning by the simpler doctrine that which is the more capable of isolated investigation. It will be seen, as the enumeration of doctrines in their due order proceeds, that this progressive order is also the order of time, and, in some striking respects, is the order of the presentation of great controversies in the course of Christian history, the problems of the doctrine of God coming first to the front, then those of the nature of man and the consequences of sin, then the doctrine of salvation, whereas many a discussion must still rage round the doctrine of the last things.

The first division of doctrinal theology is therefore the Doctrine of God (theology proper), treated under the doctrine of God as one and as triune.

The second division is the Doctrine of Angels or Spirits (angelology), their nature, state, employments, and separation into good and evil, concerning which doctrine let it be noticed that it cannot be studied apart from the doctrine of God, just as the existence of God preceded that of angels.

The third division is the Doctrine of the Cosmos (cosmology), which treats of the creation, conservation, and impermanence of the world, where again be it noticed that the doctrines of creation, conservation, and impermanence involve the doctrines, just as their data follow the existence, of God and angels.

The fourth division is the Doctrine of Man (anthropology), his origin, nature, unity, perpetuation, and original state, which doctrine again is preceded in study by the doctrines of God

his Creator, of angels his ministrants and tempters, of the creation by which he was made, and the conservation by which he has been sustained, just as the data of the doctrine of man succeed the data of the preceding doctrines.

The fifth division is the Doctrine of Sin and Evil (hamartology), its nature, origin, and consequences, which again presupposes in study and in time all the preceding doctrines and their data.

The sixth division is the Doctrine of Salvation, that is to say, the doctrine of the Saviour (Christology),—of His person in its pre-existence, incarnation, and post-existence, and His threefold work as Prophet, Priest, and King, in the treatment of which doctrine again the results and data of the preceding divisions must be assumed,—and the doctrine of salvation (soteriology),—with its subdivision into the doctrines of predestination, election, regeneration, justification, sanctification, and perseverance, concerning which doctrine the same remark as to the order of study and time must be made.

The seventh division is the Doctrine of the Church (ecclesiology), its origin, notes, purposes, progress, and instruments, during the discussion and recognition of which the doctrines of salvation, Christ, sin, man, the cosmos, angels, and God, and the data of these doctrines, are again and again indispensable.

The eighth division is the Doctrine of the Last Things (eschatology), including the doctrines of the intermediate state, the resurrection, the second advent, the final judgment, and the permanent state of the blessed and the cursed, in the formulation of which doctrine, just as in the existence of the last things their data are, all the preceding doctrines are frequently implied.

Such is the brief outline of the task of doctrinal theology, which has to ask upon every subject what is known from nature concerning it, what is known from the ethnic faiths, what is known from Scripture, and what is known from the history of doctrine, the several results thus given being duly utilised and subordinated according to the deliverances of fundamental theology. For example, our knowledge of God, of His existence and attributes, is derivable from all four

sources. What is desiderated, therefore, in the doctrine of God is, first, to unfold the natural doctrine; next, to illustrate and substantiate this natural doctrine from the ethnic doctrine; thirdly, to show how the Biblical doctrine both emphasises and develops the natural doctrine; fourthly, to trace the gradual elimination of heretical views and the gradual formulation of sound views in the history of the Christian Church; and, finally, to present all these various phases of the doctrine harmoniously and with precision, guarded against error and presenting all truth. If the task be difficult, the reward is proportioned to the task.

#### § 84.

#### BOOKS RECOMMENDED ON DOCTRINAL THEOLOGY.

#### I. For Introductory Study.

Note.—After reading carefully the history of comparative theology (§ 76), so as to appreciate the standpoint assumed by the several writers on doctrine, the student is recommended to study carefully some doctrinal system which covers the whole ground—for example, Hodge's Systematic Theology, 3 vols., or Dorner's System of Christian Doctrine, 4 vols., or A. H. Strong's Systematic Theology.

## II. For More Advanced Study.

Note.—The several systematic treatises which handle the whole range of Christian doctrine have been sufficiently characterised in § 76. It remains now to call attention to important works which treat of sections of the whole science.

# (1.) On the Doctrine of God.

Note.—Compare § 20 (13.), § 26 (16.), § 65 (7.), and § 73 (20. f.).

ON THE DOCTRINE OF GOD GENERALLY-

Charnock, Stephen, Discourses upon the Existence and Attributes of God, vols. i.-iii. of Works, 9 vols., 1815.

Sengler, J., Die Idee Gottes, Heidelberg, 2 vols., 1845–52. [The first vol. is historical; the second is doctrinal, with much that is speculative on the nature and life of God, and His relation to the creation and redemption of the world.]

Steenstra, P. H., The Being of God as Unity and Trinity, Boston and New York 1891.

Candlish, J. S., The Christian Doctrine of God, see Handbooks for Bible Classes, § 15 (3.).

ON THE FATHERHOOD OF GOD-

Crawford, T. J., The Fatherhood of God, considered in its General and Special Aspects, and particularly in relation to the Atonement, with a review of recent speculations on the subject, 2nd edit., Edinburgh 1867; 3rd edit. 1878.

Candlish, R. S., The Fatherhood of God, being the First Course of the Cunningham Lectures, delivered in 1864, 5th edit, 2 vols.,

Edinburgh 1870.

ON THE TRINITY-

Bull, Geo., Defensio Fidei Nicana, 1st edit. 1685, best edit. in Works, 8 vols., 1827; translated in 2 vols., Oxford 1851 (Library of Anglo-Catholic Theology, see § 15 (3.)), under the title, A Defence of the Nicene Creed, out of the extant Writings of the Catholick Doctors, who flourished during the first three centuries of the Christian Church, etc.

Waterland, Daniel, The Importance of the Doctrine of the Holy Trinity asserted, etc., 1719, reprinted in vol. iii. of the edition

of the Works, in 6 vols., Oxford 1843.

Faber, G. S., The Apostolicity of Trinitarianism, 2 vols., 1832.

ON THE HOLY SPIRIT-

Owen, John, Pneumatologia, or a Discourse concerning the Holy Spirit, fol., 1674.

Heber, Reginald, The Personality and Office of the Christian Comforter, Bampton Lecture for 1815; see § 15 (3.).

Faber, G. S., A Practical Treatise on the Ordinary Operations of the Holy Spirit, 6th edit. 12mo, Rivingtons, 1846.

Kahnis, C. F. A., Die Lehre vom heiligen Geiste, vol. i. (all published), Halle 1847.

Stowell, W. H., On the Work of the Spirit, Jackson, 1849.

Buchanan, Jas., On the Office and Work of the Holy Spirit, T. & T. Clark, 1856.

Moberly, G., The Administration of the Holy Spirit in the Body of Christ, Bampton Lecture for 1868; see § 15 (3.).

HARE, J. C., The Mission of the Comforter, 4th edit. 12mo, Macmillan, 1884.

Vincenzi, A., De Processione Spiritus Sancti ex patre filioque adversus Græcos, Rome 1878.

Walker, J. B., The Doctrine of the Holy Spirit, or Philosophy of the Divine Operation in the Redemption of Man, new edit., Cincinnati 1880.

SMEATON, GEO., The Doctrine of the Holy Spirit, the Ninth Series of Cunningham Lectures, T. & T. Clark, 1882. [Three divisions, -first, the Biblical doctrine of the Trinity; second, the personality, procession, and work of the Spirit; third, historical survey of the doctrine of the Holy Spirit from the Apostolic Age.

LEMME, LUDWIG, Die Sünde wider den heiligen Geist, eine Abhandlung zur Glaubenslehre, Breslau 1885.

GORDON, A. J., The Holy Spirit in Missions, 12mo, Hodder, 1893.

Koelling, Wilhelm, Pneumatologie oder die Lehre von der Person des heiligen Geistes, Gütersloh 1894.

Robson, John, The Holy Spirit, the Paraclete, a Study of the Work of the Holy Spirit in Man, Edinburgh 1894.

Candlish, J. S., The Work of the Holy Spirit; see Handbooks for Bible Classes, § 15 (3.).

# (2.) On the Doctrine of Angels and Spirits. Note.—Compare § 20 (14.) and 73 (20. g.).

(3.) On the Doctrine of the World, its Creation and Conservation.

Note.—Compare § 20 (15.) and § 73 (20. h.).

HICKOK, LAURENS P., Creator and Creation, or the Knowledge in the Reason of God in His Work, Boston 1872.

## (4.) On the Doctrine of Man.

Note.—Compare § 20 (16.), § 65 (8.), and § 73 (20. i.).

Stöckl, Albert, Die speculative Lehre vom Menschen und ihre Geschichte, im Zusammenhange mit den obersten Grundsätzen der Philosophie und Theologie, 2 vols., Wurzburg 1858.

LUTHARDT, CHR. ERNST, Die Lehre vom freien Willen und seinem Verhältniss zur Gnade in ihrer geschichtlichen Entwicklung dargestellt, Leipsic 1863.

On Man's Psychological Nature—

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# (5.) On the Doctrine of Sin and Evil.

Note.—Compare § 20 (17.) and § 65 (9.).

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#### (6.) On the Doctrine of Salvation.

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tures and Patristic Writings, Philadelphia 1874.

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#### (8.) On the Doctrine of the Last Things.

Note.—Compare § 65 (12.) and § 73 (20. l.).

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Note.—Compare König and Güder in (6) of this section.

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#### SUBDIVISION III. : ETHICAL THEOLOGY.

§ 85.

NAME, PROBLEM, DIVISION, AND HISTORY OF ETHICAL THEOLOGY.

A third branch of Comparative Theology remains. Ethical Theology is comparative ethics,—in other words, is the science of morals as conditioned by Fundamental Theology. It is a science, an orderly and reasoned presentment of a class of facts; it is a science of morals, a scientific statement of the whole range of facts pertaining to human conduct; and it is a comparative science of morals, a scheme of the earlier collection of moral data presented by the several sources of religion. By careful and critical comparison of the moral data afforded by the several sources of religion, and by a comparison in obedience to the principles and results of fundamental theology, all that it is possible for man to know concerning his duties to a supernal world is scientifically formulated in ethical theology. Ethical theology is an accurate and concatenated statement of all those moral truths consequent upon the supernal relations of man, and inferrible from the several sources of religious knowledge.

According to its definition, therefore, ethical theology, or comparative ethics, is to a very large extent identical with what is commonly called Christian ethics. For if by Christian morals is meant the morality of the Christian life, the Christian life is the highest, and governing, and ideal form of life according to the least disputed results of fundamental theology. Further, on such a significance of the term Christian, the definition given is practically identical with some other definitions, such as that of Neander, according to which "Christian ethics is the science which deduces from Christianity the laws of human action," or that of C. F. Schmid, "The part of systematic theology which has for its object the Christian life," or that of Wuttke, "The science of Christian morals," or of Harless, "The theory of the normal

Christian life," or of Martensen, "The science of moral life determined by Christianity," or of Newman Smyth, "The science of living according to Christianity." There is, however, a distinct advantage in keeping before our minds the comparative character of ethical theology. What Christian life is, is only fully understood by comparison with the morals presupposed in the nature of man, and in the Old and New Testament, and even in the history of the Church. The supreme position of Christian morals becomes at once the clearer and the more scientifically assured by pursuing the comparative method.

The PROBLEM of ethical theology follows from the definition. The problem is twofold; first, by comparison of the inductions of philosophical ethics, of the ethics of natural theology, of Biblical and of ecclesiastical ethics, to gain governing principles as to the relative value of the several ethical sciences; and second, by means of these governing principles, to construct a complete ethical science. Comparative ethics is not philosophical ethics; nor is it ethnic ethics; nor is it Biblical ethics; nor is it the ethics of any phase of the Christian Church: it is a science of a more inclusive kind than any of these; it results from a critical comparison of the obligation and value of all of them. Comparative ethics is ethics par excellence.

The HISTORY of comparative ethics has scarcely commenced. The separation of theological ethics from theological dogmatics, made early in Reformation days, was one great step towards the constitution of our science; for a science of agenda is not a science of credenda. Again, the separation of Biblical from philosophical ethics, made early in this century, was a second great step. Further, as has just been said, recent studies in Christian ethics so called, which have been more or less comparative, have also advanced our science. But the thinking world waits for a comparative ethics, scientifically ordered and wrought out, which shall present, in their due subordination to principle, the moral facts and inductions pertaining to natural, ethnic, Biblical, and ecclesiastical ethics.

The DIVISION of ethical theology would therefore run as follows:—

I. A FUNDAMENTAL ETHICS, showing-

1. The obligation of philosophical morals.

2. ,, ,, natural morals.

3. ,, ,, ethnic morals. 4. ,, ,, Biblical morals.

5. ,, ,, ecclesiastical morals.

 The relative obligation of philosophical, natural, Biblical, and ecclesiastical morals.

II. A CONSTRUCTIVE ETHICS, showing-

- 1. The comparative doctrine of the moral standard of man (The Ideal Man, the Life of Christ).
- 2. The comparative doctrine of the moral nature of man, in its origin, development, and destiny (Life in Christ).
- The comparative doctrine of the moral end of man, in his individual, family, social, state, and church relations (Christ in Life).

§ 86.

BOOKS RECOMMENDED FOR THE STUDY OF ETHICAL THEOLOGY.

#### I. For Introductory Study.

MARTENSEN, H., Christian Ethics, General Part, T. & T. Clark, 1882; Special Part, First Division, Individual Ethics, T. & T. Clark, 1881. [In the former the postulates and fundamental concepts of Christian ethics are considered, and in the latter the life under the law and sin, and the life in following Christ, both from the New Testament standpoint.]

#### II. For Advanced Study.

Böhmer, W., System des christlichen Leben, Breslau 1853.

Schmid, Ch. F., Christliche Sittenlehre, edited by Heller, Gotha 1867. Harless, G. C. A. von, Christliche Ethik, 8th edit. 1895; also System of Christian Ethics, translated from the 6th German edition by Morrison and Findlay, T. & T. Clark, 1868. [Treats of the ethical side of the blessing of salvation, of its possession, and its preservation.]

Wuttke, A., Handbuch des christlichen Sittenlehre, 2 vols., Berlin 1861-62, 2nd edit. 1874-75, translated as Christian Ethics, 2 vols., T. & T. Clark; a new German edition, edited by L. Schulze,

was issued in 1885.

Culmann, P. Th., Christliche Ethik, 2nd edit., 2 vols., Stuttgart 1874. Lange, J. P., Grundriss der christlichen Ethik, Heidelberg 1878.

Frank, F. H. R., System der christlichen Sittlichkeit, 2 vols., Erlangen 1884-87. Dorner, Isaac A., System der christlichen Sittenlehre, edited by A. Dorner, Berlin 1885; translated by C. M. Mead and R. T. Cunningham as System of Christian Ethics, T. & T. Clark, 1887.

Scharling, C. H., Christliche Sittenlehre nach evangelisch-lutherischer Auffassung, aus dem Dänischen von O. Gleiss, Bremen 1892.

SMYTH, NEWMAN, Christian Ethics, T. & T. Clark, 1892; see International Theological Library, § 15 (3.).

Kuebel, Robert, Christliche Ethik, edited by Gottlob Weisser, 2 vols., Munich 1896.

Luthardt, Chr. Ernst, Kompendium der theologischen Ethik, Leipsie 1896.

#### DIVISION VI.

#### PASTORAL OR APPLIED THEOLOGY.

§ 87.

NAME, DEFINITION, AND PROBLEM OF PASTORAL THEOLOGY.

THE last division of theological science will call for but brief treatment. Pastoral Theology is Applied Theology, and handles, with completeness and order, the active life, the pastoral functions, of the Christian Church. As Hagenbach has well said, pastoral, or, as he prefers to say, practical theology, "embraces the theory of Church activities or functions, whether they be exercised by the Church as a whole or by individual members and representative persons acting for the Church." The definition is just. The Church cannot entirely delegate its pastoral functions. It is the Church at large which is ultimately responsible for the rearing and tending of the Lord's sheep. The Church at large is the shepherd of the world.

Pastoral theology, then, is the science of the functions of the Christian Church. As such it is the goal of all the branches which precede, or, as Schleiermacher expressed it, it is "the crown of the tree" of theological science, seeing that it shows how to practically employ for the advantage of mankind the results gained in the more theoretical studies which have gone before. Pastoral theology is in effect theoretical theology as applied to practical ends scientifically studied.

Indeed, to utilise the acknowledged distinction between science theoretical and a science practical, pastoral theology is a science practical. So far as an art is theory utilised, pastoral theology may even be called an art. Nevertheless its scientific character must not be forgotten. The activities as well as the thoughts of men may be formulated with completeness and consecution, and pastoral theology examines with all due accuracy, fulness, and order the functions of the Christian Church. Therefore pastoral theology is called a practical science, seeing that it is concerned with the methodical study of those general principles which rule the life of the Church and of their numerous applications. Pastoral theology should be to the Church worker what the study of the practice, as distinct from the theory, of medicine is to the medical practitioner.

As has been already mentioned, two NAMES have been adopted for this science. By many it has been called Practical Theology, because of its practical bearing. Undoubtedly there is some appropriateness in the name. The theoretical side of theology may, however, be utilised in so many ways, that there seems to be the same objection to calling this section of theology by the name of practical theology as there was to naming the third section exegetical theology; the title is in neither case sufficiently explicit. There is exegesis which is not Biblical, and there is practical theology which is not pastoral. For this reason: because this section treats of the nature and duties of the Church in its pastoral relation to the world, so far as these can be reduced to system, the second name given by many to the science, of pastoral theology, has been preferred. The principal objection to this name is that pastoral theology has been frequently used to signify the duties of the official pastor as studied scientifically; but this use of the term is so liable to misunderstanding that frequent insistence upon the pastoral relations of the entire Church is rather commendable than otherwise. Pastoral theology, then, is a branch of technical training, and shows how to apply for the good of mankind the knowledge gained in the other branches of theology. More briefly, pastoral theology is the

science of the functions of the Church: its best name would

be Applied Theology.

The PROBLEM, then, of pastoral theology is to examine with completeness and order the various facts and principles which concern the active work of the Christian Church. Pastoral theology is thus an essential part of any theological training, seeing that it has direct reference both to the usefulness of the individual and the good of the community. To teach the exegesis of Scripture with care, to initiate into the fascinating course of the history of the Christian Church, to familiarise with the Hebrew of the Old Testament and the Greek of the New, to induct into the principles and results of doctrinal discussion, and then to omit the scientific examination of the duties of the Christian worker, would be like introducing the painter to the great masters and all the splendid achievements and history of his art, and neglecting to teach him how to stretch his canvas, clean his brushes, and mix his colours; or it would be like teaching the sailor trigonometry and astronomy and physical geography, and many a foreign language, and forgetting to impart to him the principles of practical seamanship. It is true that some of the practical acquaintance with methods and ends may be picked up by the observant during apprenticeship, so to speak, to actual labour for the good of man: nevertheless, if a more orderly and rounded investigation be possible, it must be of considerable value, facilitating the crystallisation of personal opinions as to objects and modes, imparting many a fruitful result of long experience, and instructing in those numerous principles and details which are common property whilst they are commonly esteemed. The experiences of those practically acquainted with the pastoral work of the Church have many common features; these common elements form the data of the science of pastoral theology; the problem of the science is to present these data in order, together with the inferences they warrant.

#### § 88.

#### THE UTILITY AND HISTORY OF PASTORAL THEOLOGY.

The problem of pastoral theology being, then, to present in orderly manner any inductions which may be drawn from the pastoral experience of the Church generally, or from the nature of the case, such a science must be useful. there be a large mass of valuable material commonly accepted because taught by common experience, it is mere eccentricity or shortsightedness to ignore these generally accredited maxims. It is true that in the pastoral work of the Church, as in all practical life, there is a large sphere for originality of act as well as of thought, and it is also true that no theoretical teaching can ever take the place of actual experience; nevertheless, whilst quite allowing that the swimmer must be made by swimming, and the singer by singing, and the Christian worker by working, there is always some advantage, and frequently a very considerable advantage, to be gained by technical training. Unless the art of preaching and of pastoral care always requires to be learnt by the preacher wholly for himself, or unless there is no possibility of scientific treatment of pastoral work, it scarcely calls for discussion that the candidate for the honours of pastoral work in any form will benefit by the study of pastoral theology. If there be such a science, it must be useful.

But perhaps the most conclusive proof of the value of such a science is to be found in the numerous books which have in all ages of the Church been devoted to the theoretical treatment of the pastoral functions of the Church and of its officials. It is not intended to name even a hundredth part of the literary testimony to the need of such a science, although books many might be quoted in illustration from all the phases of the varied life of the Christian Church of the past. Many books might be cited from patristic and from mediæval literature which deal wholly or partially with what is here called pastoral theology. Letters, sermons, manuals

might be quoted as instances. Chrysostom's work on the Priesthood, part of the 'Απολογητικός of Gregory of Nazianzum, the works of Leo the Great and Gregory the Great on Cura pastoralis, the writings of St. Bernard, De Consideratione, De moribus et officio episcoporum, and De vita et moribus clericorum, are deserving of perusal to-day. The Reformation, transforming the priest into the pastor and teacher, naturally gave a considerable impetus to works on pastoral theology, in the writing of which Melanchthon and Zwingli led the way, the former with his De Officiis Concionatoris, and the latter with his Pastor qua docetur quibus notis veri pastores a falsis discerni possint. Similarly, from the time of the Reformation, works of a like kind have been numerous in England, in Germany, and in America, amongst Protestant nations, whilst Rome has always fostered works of this class. The more important recent works, especially of the more scientific type, will be given in § 90.

#### § 89.

#### THE DIVISION OF PASTORAL THEOLOGY.

Remembering, then, that the problem of pastoral theology is to present as fully, precisely, and rationally as possible the pastoral functions, whether of the Church at large, or of the officers of the Church, the division of the science must run somewhat as follows:—

First comes the theory of the Church itself, of Church polity, its constitution, its members and its officers, its laws and its discipline, its means of support; where the rival theories of Congregationalism, Presbyterianism, and Prelacy, in their various forms, call for examination.

Then, proceeding from the constitution of the Church, which to some extent determines its functions, to those functions themselves, we come, SECONDLY, to the theory of worship, or liturgies, as it is often called: under this heading also come the theory of ecclesiastical art and architecture, and the theory of church music, and hymnology.

THIRDLY, advancing to a further function of the Church, we come to the theory of preaching, or homileties.

FOURTHLY, we come to yet another function of the Church, the theory of the training of the young, or catechetics, as it is sometimes called.

FIFTHLY, we have the theory of the training of pastors and teachers and other Church workers—another vital part of the work of the Churches, to which the awkward name of pædagogies has been sometimes applied.

SIXTHLY, we have the theory of the care of souls, or the careful and thorough consideration of all those duties towards individuals who require Christian nurture and aid, as apart from the common worship and teaching of the Church.

SEVENTHLY, the theory of Christian charities should not be omitted, the assistance of the poor and needy being a very distinct function of the Christian Church.

Eighthly, we must not overlook the important theory of missions, whether foreign or home, or of the carrying the gospel to those who are outside the pale of Church life.

Upon most of these heads many books have been written of a more or less scientific character, those which are merely preceptive and explanatory preponderating. A selection of useful books is appended in the next section. Those requiring fuller information will consult with advantage Hurst's Literature of Theology, pp. 559-616, where the following headings amongst others obtain, viz.: - Preparation and Delivery of Sermons, Illustration and Anecdote, and Sermons. Amongst special subjects of Practical Theology, the following useful headings, among others, are given:-Catechisms and Catechetics, Ceremonies, Charity, City Mission Work, Consolation in Affliction, Faith-Healing, Family and Home Life, Ecclesiastical Law, Liturgies, Marriage, Pauperism and Crime, Religious Poetry, Prayer and the Prayer-Meeting, Psalmody and Music, Religion and Labour, Religion and the State, Revivals, Sabbath, Sunday School, Woman, Young People.

#### § 90.

#### BOOKS RECOMMENDED ON PASTORAL THEOLOGY.

#### I. For Introductory Study.

Oosterzee, J. J. van, Practical Theology, a Manual for Theological Students, translated and adapted to the use of English readers by M. J. Evans, Hodder, 1877. [Clear, well arranged, and popularly put.]

#### II. For Advanced Study.

#### (1.) On Pastoral Theology generally.

#### (a) Serials.

"Halte was du hast," Zeitschrift für Pastoral-Theologie, unter Mitwirkung von F. Braun, P. Kleinert, and H. A. Köstlin, herausgegeben von Eugen Sachsse, Berlin. [Commenced in 1877, and still issuing monthly.]

and still issuing monthly.]

Zeitschrift für praktische Theologie, hersg. von Bassermann und Ehlers, Frankfort. [Commenced in 1879, and still issuing

quarterly.]

ZIMMER, Handbibliothek der praktischen Theologie, Gotha 1890, and still issuing.

Band 1: Grundlegung—

Sulze, E., Die erangelische Gemeinde (a volume to follow on The Evangelical Minister).

Band 2: Deutsch-evangelisches Kirchenrecht (not published).

Band 3, 4: Liturgik—

Meuss, Eduard, Die gottesdienstlichen Handlungen von individueller Beziehung in der evang. Kirche.

Von Hase, Karl Alfred, Die Hausandacht, ein Ratgeber für christliche Hausvüter und junge Geistliche.

Palmié, Friedrich, Die evangelischen Schulgottesdienste.

Band 5: Die kirchliche Kunst-

Bürkner, Richard, Kirchenschmuck und Kirchengerät (volumes promised on Church Architecture and on Churchyard Ornamentation).

Band 6:

Fischer, A. F. W., Die kirchliche Dichtung, hauptsächlich in Deutschland.

ZIMMER, Fr., Die Kirchenorgel und das kirchliche Orgelspiel (volumes promised on Congregational Singing and Domestic Sacred Music, and on Altar and Choir Singing). Band 7: Homiletik (not published).

Band 8: Katechetik—

Höhne, Der evangelische Religionsunterricht an höheren Lehran stalten (volumes promised on Elementary Religious Instruction, and on The Instruction of the Candidates for Confirmation).

Band 9: Katechetik—

Schultze, Karl, Evangelische Volksschulkunde.

Band 10: Pastoral—

Beck, Hermann, Die religiüse Volkslitteratur der evang. Kirche Deutschlands in einem Ahriss ihrer Geschichte (volumes promised on The Cure of Souls and The Bible in the Life of the People).

Band 11-14: Innere Mission und Diakonie-

Stöcker, A., Die evang. Stadtmission.

Römheld, C. J., Diakonie und innere Mission auf dem Lande.

Goetz, Carl, Der Diakonissenberuf in seinen Grundanschauungen und seiner Ausgestaltung in den Diakonissenhäusern unserer Zeit.

Stromberger, C. W., Freie Frauenthütigkeit im Reiche Gottes, aus Geschichte und Erfahrung dargestellt.

Lauxmann, Richard, Das Familienleben, seine Bedeutung, Geführdung und Pflege.

Zimmer, Friedrich, Die kirchliche Ordnung der Hausandacht.

HÜBENER, JOHANN, Die Kleinkinderpflege. LAMMERS, AUGUST, Die Erziehung zur Arbeit.

Jüngst, Johannes, Die Ausbildung der Mädchen geringen Standes für das Hauswesen.

Dalton, Hermann, Die Sonntagsschule.

Schwanbeck, Die Jünglings-und Jungfrauenvereine nebst verwandten Vereinen zur Pflege christlicher Gemeinschaft.

NAUMANN, FRANZ, Christliche Volkserholungen.

Rosseck, Die Sonntagsfrage.

Zimmer, Friedrich, Die Musik im Dienste des Evangeliums.

Schöner, C. H., Die christl. Volkslitteratur und ihre Verbreitung.

— Die periödische Presse und die Kirche mit besonderer Berücksichtigung der Tagespresse.

Knipper, J., Die Arbeit der innern Mission an den Gebildeten.

Konschel, Die Frauenfrage.

Weber, Bestrebungen für das Arbeiterwohl.

Schröter, A., Die kirchliche Versorgung der Auswanderer.

Harms, F. M., Die Seemannsmission.

Vatter, Johannes, Die Taubstummenpflege. Brandstäter, August, Die Blindenpflege.

Sengelmann, Die Arbeit an den Schwach und Blödsinnigen.

BÜTTNER, J. S., Pflege der Siechen und Krüppel.

Martins, Wilhelm, Die Rettung der Trinker und die Bekämpfung der Trunksucht.

Weber, Der Kampf wider die Unzucht.

Böhmert, Victor, Die Armenpflege.

NAUMANN, Der Wucher und seine Bekämpfung.

Becker, W., Antisemit oder Philosemit? Wer hab Recht?

LORENZ, Die Krankenpflege.

Borchard, H., Die deutsche evangelische Diaspora: Australien, Südafrika, Süd-Amerika.

Kobbelt, Rudolf, Die deutsche evangel. Diaspora: Asien, Nord-Amerika, Europa, Nord-Afrika.

Other volumes to follow.

Band 15: Polemik und Irenik (not yet published).

Band 16: Apologetik—

Steude, C. G., Evangelische Apologetik.

De le Roi, J. F. A., Die Mission der erang. Kirche an Israel.

Band 17: Missionslehre—

Warneck, G., Evangelische Missionslehre.

Hering, H., Sammlung von Lehrbürhern der praktischen Theologie in gedrangter Darstellung, Berlin. [Commenced in 1894, and still issuing in parts of about 4 sheets.]

Band 1: Hering, H., Lehrbuch der Homiletik.

Band 2, 3: Rietschel, G., Lehrbuch der Liturgik. Band 4: Sachsse, E., Lehrbuch der Katechetik.

Band 5: Köstlin, H. A., Lehre von der Seelsorge (complete).

Band 6: Wurster, P., Lehre von der innern Mission (complete).
Band 7: Kohler, K., Lehrbuch des deutsch-evangelischen Kirchenrecht.

#### (b.) Separate Works.

Vinet, A., Théologie pastorale, Paris 1854, translated as Pastoral Theology, the Theory of a Gospel Ministry, 2nd edit., T. & T. Clark, 1855.

Blunt, J. H., Directorium Pastorale, Principles and Practice of Pastoral Work in the Church of England, Rivingtons, 1864.

Burgon, J. W., A Treatise on the Pastoral Office, addressed chiefly to candidates for holy orders or to those who have recently undertaken the cure of souls, Macmillan, 1864.

Blaikie, W. G., For the Work of the Ministry, a Manual of Homiletical and Pastoral Theology, Strahan, 1873; 4th edit.,

Nisbet, 1885.

Fairbairn, Patrick, Pastoral Theology, a Treatise on the Office and Duties of the Christian Pastor, 12mo, T. & T. Clark, 1875.

M'All, S., The Pastoral Care, or Practical Hints on the Constitution, Discipline, and Services of Congregational or Independent Churches, and the various branches of ministerial duty in reference to the same, 2nd edit. 12mo, Hodder, 1875.

Zezschwitz, G. v., System der praktischen Theologie, 3 parts, Leipsic

1876-78. [Systematic and complete.]

assisted by Plath, Harnack, and Schäfer, writes the very able sections upon this subject in the third volume of Zöckler's Handbuch der theologischen Wissenchaften; see § 15 (3.).

Harms, Kl., Pastoraltheologie, in Reden an Theologie-Studierende, 3 vols., 3rd edit., Kiel 1878. [Pertinent, pungent, and readable.] Hoppin, J. M., Pastoral Theology, New York and London, 1885.

[Diffuse, but good.]

Achelis, E. C., Praktische Theologie, Freiburg 1890. [Systematic and full.]

- Praktische Theologie; see Grundriss der theol. Wissenschaften,

§ 15 (3.). [Much briefer than the preceding.]

Krauss, A., Lehrbuch der praktischen Theologie, 2 vols., 1890-93; see Sammlung theol. Lehrbücher, § 15 (3.). [Systematic and full.] Vaucher, Edouard, De la Théologie Pratique, Paris 1893. [Clear and able.]

## (2) On Church Polity.

Comp. p. 555.

#### (3) On Homiletics, or the Theory of Preaching.

STURTEVANT, P. T., Preacher's Manual, or Lectures on Preaching, furnishing rules and examples of every kind of pulpit address, 3rd edit., Ward, 1838. [Somewhat formal, but still useful.]

Palmer, Christian, Erangelische Homiletik, Stuttgart 1842, 6th

edit., by O. Kirn, 1887.

Vinet, A., Homilétique on Théorie de la Prédication, Paris 1853, translated under the title of Homiletics, or the Theory of Preach-

ing, T. & T. Clark, 1853. [Very lucid and able.]

Fish, H. C., History and Repository of Pulpit Eloquence (deceased divines), comprising the masterpieces of Bossuet, Bourdaloue, Massillon, Fléchier, Abbadie, Taylor, Barrow, Hall, Watson, M'Laurin, Chalmers, Evans, Edwards, Davies, etc., etc., with discourses from Chrysostom, Basil, Gregory Nazianzen, Augustine, Athanasius, and others amongst the Fathers, and from Wickliffe, Luther, Calvin, Melanchthon, Knox, Latimer, etc. of the Reformers, also sixty other celebrated sermons from as many eminent divines in the Greek and Latin, English, German, Irish, French, Scottish, American, and Welsh Churches, a large number of which have now, for the first time, been translated; the whole arranged in their proper order, and accompanied with historical sketches of preaching in the different countries represented, and biographical and critical notices of the several preachers and their discourses, 2 vols., New York 1857.

— Pulpit Eloquence of the Nineteenth Century, being supplementary to the History and Repository of Sacred Eloquence (deceased divines), and containing discourses of eminent living masters in Europe and America, with sketches biographical and descriptive, with a supplement carrying down the work to 1874, and including discourses by Beecher, Adams, Parker, and many others, with an introductory essay by Ed. A. Park, New York 1874. [Gives

prominent examples of the German, French, American, Scotch,

Irish, and Welsh pulpit.]

BAUTAIN, M., The Art of Extempore Speaking, Hints for the Pulpit, the Senate, and the Bar, translated from the French, 4th edit.

12mo, Bosworth, 1867.

Hood, E. Paxton, Lamps, Pitchers, and Trumpets, Lectures delivered to Students for the Ministry on the Vocation of the Preacher, illustrated by anecdotes, biographical, historical, and elucidatory, of every order of pulpit eloquence, from the great preachers of all ages, Jackson, 1867.

Parker, Joseph, Ad Clerum, Advices to a young Preacher, first published in the Pulpit Analyst for 1869, and since published

separately.

Shedd, W. G. T., Homiletics and Pastoral Theology, 12mo, Edinburgh 1869.

Moore, Daniel, Thoughts on Preaching, specially in relation to the Requirements of the Age, 2nd edit. 12mo, Hatchard, 1869.

Kidder, D. P., A Treatise on Homiletics, designed to illustrate the True Theory and Practice of Preaching the Gospel, New York 1871; 3rd edit., Dickinson, 1873.

Spurgeon, C. H., Lectures to my Students, first series, Passmore,

1875: second series, 1877.

Storrs, Richard S., Conditions of Success in Preaching without Notes, three Lectures delivered before the Students of the Union Theological Seminary, New York, 1875; New York 1875.

Broadus, J. A., Lectures on the History of Preaching, Higham, 1876. Brooks, Phillips, Lectures on Preaching, delivered before the Divinity School of Yale College, 1877, New York 1877; new

edit., Allenson, 1896.

Nebe, A., Zur Geschichte der Predigt, Charakterbilder der bedeutendsten Kanzelredner, Wiesbaden 1879, 3 vols. [The first vol. deals with the time from Origen to Tauler, the second from Luther to Albertini, the third from Schleiermacher to the present (i.e. in Germany).

HOPPIN, J. M., Homiletics, New York, and Nisbet, 2nd edit, 1881. [In two parts, viz. Homiletics proper, with a history of preaching

in all ages, and Rhetoric as applied to preaching.]

BEECHER, HENRY WARD, Yale Lectures on Preaching, first, second, and third series, 3 vols. in 1, New York 1881. [The first series treats of "the personal elements which bear an important relation to preaching," the second of "the social and religious machinery of the Church," and the third of "methods of using Christian doctrines."]

Burgess, Henry, The Art of Preaching and the Composition of Sermons, with an introductory Essay on the present position and influence of the pulpit of the Church of England, designed chiefly for the use of theological students and the younger clergy, Hamil-

ton, Adams, & Co., 1881.

Phelps, Austin, Theory of Preaching, Lectures on Homiletics, 4to, Dickinson, 1882.

— Men and Books, or Studies in Homiletics, Lectures introductory to the Theory of Preaching, Dickinson, 1882.

— English Style in Pulpit Discourse, with Special Reference to the Usages of the Pulpit, Dickinson, 1883.

Dale, R. W., Nine Lectures on Preaching delivered at Yale, New Haven, Connecticut, 4th edit., Hodder, 1882.

Davies, G. J., Papers on Preaching, 1882, 3rd edit. 1883.

Jungmann, Joseph, Theorie der geistlichen Beredtsamkeit, 2 vols., 2nd edit. 1883; see Theologische Bibliothek, § 15 (3.).

Bassermann, Heinrich, Handbuch der geistlichen Beredsamkeit, Stuttgart 1885.

Ker, John, Lectures on the History of Preaching, 1st edit., Hodder, 1887; 3rd edit. 1895.

TWELLS, HENRY, Colloquies on Preaching, Longmans, 1889.

Behrends, A. J. F., The Philosophy of Preaching, 12mo, New York 1890.

Stalker, James, The Preacher and his Models, Hodder, 1891; 4th edit. 1895.

Albert, F. R., Die Geschichte der Predigt in Deutschland, part i. 1892; part ii. 1893, Gütersloh.

OLIVER, ALEXANDER, What and How to Preach, Edinburgh 1892.

Horton, R. F., Verbum Dei, Unwin, 1893.

Christlieb, Th., Homiletik, Vorlesungen, edit. by H. Haarbeck, Basle, 1893.

Carpenter, W. Boyd, Lectures on Preaching, Macmillan, 1895.

— Dean Lefroy, Dean Farrar, Archdeacon Sinclair, Canon Tristram, Prebendary Webb-Pefloe, H. C. G. Moule, F. J. Chavasse, W. H. M. H. Aitken, A. J. Harrison, H. Sutton, and A. R. Buckland, On Sermon Preparation, Recollections and Suggestions, Seeley, 1876.

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